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ABSTRACT

The handbook presents methods and techniques for involving students in a variety of learning activities which will broaden their perceptions of the non-Western world, specifically Africa, Asia, Latin America, and the Middle East. The activities stress group discussion and personal interaction. Section one gives a brief overview of various approaches to teaching about the non-Western world, including emphases on stereotypes, alternative life styles, universality of man, role of culture in an individual's development, and problems of modernization. Section two presents three models for implementing non-Western studies programs based on semester, unit, and lesson approaches. Section three, the largest section, gives samples of 13 different teaching methods. These include content analysis of reading passages, situational exercises, role plays, mixed culture groups, use of outside resources, nonverbal communication activities, and field experiences. Each sample method explains requirements for group size, time required, materials needed, physical setting, process, special instructions, and related resources. Section four identifies innovative, multidisciplinary teaching materials, both audiovisual and textual, as well as resource guides, agencies, and major curriculum projects related to non-Western studies. (AV)

CENTER FOR INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

Teaching Non-Western Studies: A Handbook of Methods and Materials

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PREFACE

This handbook is designed to be used, not read and put on the shelf. The methods and techniques presented here are designed to involve students in a variety of learning activities in order to broaden their perceptions of the world in which they live. The activities are student-oriented and, in particular, are intended to encourage group discussion and a high degree of human interaction. It is hoped that educators will find the information valuable and useful in their work and that both teachers and students will find learning more interesting and stimulating through the use of their ideas.

Educators recognize the need to move beyond a few "time-tested" techniques. Students today need the stimulation of a great variety of learning methods. Yet, often education courses, in-service workshops and commercially produced materials fail to deal with the "how-to". The emphasis is often entirely on the content without recognizing its relationship to the process. We hope the handbook can serve as a companion to the content materials.

The book is divided into four sections, The first is a brief overview of various approaches to teaching about the non-Western world. This is followed by several sample models of non-Western studies programs. While these are not complete, they should give the reader an adequate idea of various ways non-Western studies methods for teaching non-Western studies. These have been designed as instructions with appropriate examples, but teachers should feel free to vary them as they wish. The last section is divided into two parts. The first is a listing of some

of the major resources in non-Western studies. It should be noted that this is not a comprehensive listing, but represents some of the major, in our opinion, best resources. The second portion reviews some of the major curriculum projects presently available in non-Western studies.

We would like to express our gratitude to Patricia Cruikshank and Edith Overing for their typing, to the social studies coordinators throughout the Commonwealth who assisted by critiquing the drafts of this handbook, and especially the Youth Office of the United Nations Educational, Social and Cultural Organization to whom we are in debt for the use of material from which a portion of this handbook was adapted, and to the National Endowment for the Humanities who provided the funds for project under which this manual was written.

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APPROACHES TO TEACHING ABOUT THE NON-WESTERN WORLD

There once may have been a time when "growing up" was a matter of learning about an ever widening circle of people and places, and the traditional method of teaching was to progress from the known to the unknown - that is to start with those things the students know best and to move toward an understanding of the globe.

Today this is no longer true for we live in a world made smaller through a massive communication system and modern transportation. No longer is it possible to have students grow up in their little corner unaffected by what they see and hear all around them; for young students as well as adults participate in an ever increasing range of circumstances which are world-wide in origin. This is especially true of events which occur today throughout the non-Western world.

Most students have a natural inquisitiveness when it comes to the non-Western world. Whether the inquisitiveness stems from a student's interest in his heritage or whether it is based on an interest in people who appear to be different, it is to the teacher's advantage to capitalize on this interest. If a teacher wanted to compile a list of reasons why students are interested in the non-Western world you could fill a couple of pages. But the most difficult task is to structure this interest into a meaningful program so that students, who are already inquisitive can have their awareness channeled in order that certain educational objectives can be accomplished.

One of the major problems facing the teacher who is interested in exploring our planet is one of organization. The non-Western world is made up of an incredibly diverse population. No single teacher

or program could grasp the total complexity of the cultures which inhabit the world. Scholars spend a lifetime collating and analyzing materials in order to better understand the divergent customs, values and institutions which exist.

Teachers have a limited amount of time and a great deal they want to accomplish. As a consequence it becomes necessary to select ways in which diverse cultures can be approached in order that particular objectives can be met. Perhaps the most difficult task in structuring a non-Western studies program is in selecting realistic and viable objectives; and then clarifying them to the point that decisions regarding the choice of materials, instructional strategies and evaluation procedures can be made responsibly.

The developer of a program must be aware of possible ways the non-Western world can be approached - within a limited span - in order to help meet specific objectives. No matter which approach is utilized it will have its own distinct advantages and disadvantages. Few programs can be all encompassing.

Listed below is a series of approaches that might be considered in structuring a program. None of the ways are especially right or wrong and none are mutually exclusive. In analyzing the various approaches it should become clear that specific objectives and goals would result from the approaches selected. The task, then, in analyzing these approaches is to make unconscious objectives conscious and to aid in structuring a realistic program designed to accomplish specific goals.

1. Students will learn to recognize and understand common stereotypes that are held about people and areas of the non-Western world. A curriculum based on this objective would focus on

students' and societies' attitudes towards culturally different people, and move toward a balanced and non-ethnocentric view.

2. Students will recognize the possibilities of alternative life styles through a study of the alternatives offered in other cultures. In a curriculum based on this general objective, students would learn how other people view time and space, and the values they have toward such things as work, friendship, status, and family.

3. Students will learn about the differences and similarities of Western and non-Western cultures. This would be a curriculum based on the comparative study of peoples and would include the interrelationships of geography, socio-economic systems and cultural values.

4. Students will understand man as a species, evolving toward a world society. A curriculum such as this might begin with a study of man in relation to other biological organisms, then to a study of man's evolution, the proliferation and diversity of cultures, and the present movement toward a world-wide society.

5. Students will develop an understanding of the role that culture plays in the development of the individual. This is essentially an anthropological approach in which students would learn of the forms that education, religion, marriage, and work play in both our society and on other continents.

6. Students will broaden their factual knowledge about the non-Western world. The emphasis would be on building a factual base

from which generalizations would be made. The disciplines would include economics, geography, political science, and demography.

7. Students will understand the major problems facing the non-Western world in its move toward modernization. These problems would include: population growth and control, agricultural production, attempts to broaden the basse of education, the problems of political control and stability, and building a national identity in the face of tribal and sectional loyalties.

8. Students will gain an understanding of the complexities of foreign policy decisions. Through an interdisciplinary approach, and the case study method, foreign policy problems of the past and present will be analyzed in detail.

9. Students in minority groups, particularly Black students, will gain a sense of pride in the past and current achievements of non-European people. Such a curriculum would include a study of ancient African civilizations, the movement for independence and the establishment of nationhood in Africa. If there are quite a few Spanish-speaking students, the curriculum would include material on Latin America.

Once a series of approaches has been determined, and realistic objectives structured, the teacher must turn his attention toward ways in which these approaches can be placed into a meaningful context. There is not an established strategy for doing so.

However, there are some general principles which might want to be taken into consideration in planning a program in order to ensure clarity

and the appropriateness of the objectives. The principles listed below call for a combination of approaches which would help establish unifying goals for a program. They are designed to equip students with a realistic view of non-Western people and cultures. The principles are:

1. Non-Western people should be discussed on their own terms - preferably in their own words, through their own eyes.
2. Some cultures should not be considered better or worse than other cultures. Cultures are organized according to different principles and must be considered within the context of these principles.
3. Students should be trained to view an event or culture from more than one point of view.
4. An examination of a culture should be interdisciplinary in approach.
5. Material should be as current as possible or be directly related to something current. History, for example, might be most appropriately examined in relation to some current event.
6. Cultures must be examined in enough depth to emphasize their complexity; cultures that can only be treated superficially should be dropped.
7. Material must be selected with which students can identify.

There are also some key concepts about the nature of the non-Western world, which - when taught - can be used to increase knowledge and help change attitudes about our fellow human beings who not only live on a distant continent, but also right down the street from us.

These key concepts focus on attempts to explain:

(1) the variations of cultures and people in the non-Western world;

(2) the cultural patterns and habits which distinguish one group of people from another;

(3) the value orientation of non-Western people;

(4) the social transition now taking place throughout the world;

(5) the impact of Western influences, both negative and positive.

The concepts are not inclusive and no attempt has been made to establish a pattern for their usage. However, their exploration should help to achieve particular educational objectives which should be of concern to all educators. Let's look at these concepts one at a time.

1. The variations of cultures and people in the non-Western world. A major goal of all classroom teachers should be to break down stereotypic thinking about people - that is, to break down the misconception that students have that if you meet an indvidual from a particular foreign country - that all individuals from that country or town or street are just like him. This kind of closed generalization is all too typical in our classrooms. Youngsters normally have to be led to a position where acceptance of people who are different becomes part of their psychological attitude. By teaching about the variations of cultures and people, students are helped to develop an appreciation and understanding for the dignity and worth of individuals who are different from them —not only people in far distant lands, but people right next door. All too often prejudices are strengthened in our classroom. When a teacher points out a few of the misconceptions students have, students learn the necessity of withholding their judgement until more information is obtained.

2. The cultural patterns which distinguish one group of people from another. In looking at the non-Western world in particular, it becomes evident that there are various patterns of culture which help to distinguish one group of people from another such as language, religion, work habits, and social customs. By carefully studying these patterns of different cultures, students can gain an appreciation for different ways of life than their own. By showing students that people's characteristics and ways of living are determined by custom and environment, students can be taught to systematically observe these differences and interpret the reasons for them. Successful human interaction begins when youngsters learn to take into account and reconcile the diversity in people. Misconceptions over why people are different - whether they live next door or on the other side of the world - diminish if students develop the habit of inquiry - to ask themselves why people are as they are.

3. The value orientation of non-Western people. While it is impossible to understand all of the value variations found in a given culture, it is important that students be made aware that such differences exist so that they have some background for understanding the motives and actions of the people living in a specific area. Such a study also helps students look at their own value orientation, and makes them more aware of the limitations in perspective imposed by their own culture. When students take the time to view the world, they begin to recognize their own preconceptions and the role they have played in shaping their values.

An exposure to the generalized values which people have also helps to place in context the wide variety of human patterns of behavior. Not

only does it show the differences in fellow human beings, but similarities as well. Students can be shown that people are more alike than different and that all human beings share certain attributes and aspirations. Through teaching about the non-Western world the teacher can make students more aware of such commonalities as their feeling toward family and friends, the things they enjoy doing and the search for beauty and happiness found among all youngsters. Such a program is also intrinsically valuable to a youngster's own self-image, for it helps him to gain a better perspective of himself.

4-5. The Social transitions now taking place throughout the World - impact of Western influences - can be placed in one category. Increased contact between the West and the rest of the world, has directly affected the life of millions of people. Not only has the contact led to a form of modernization, but it has also helped produce an arena for conflict as divergent customs, institutions and values confront one another. An awareness of both the positive and negative influences which come from the West should help the student to recognize and take into account the West's influence on the rest of the world. It should also make the student aware of the social transition which has occurred because of the contact other people have had with the West.

By emphasizing the positive aspect of Westernization the teacher can give to his students a sense of shared humanity which can assist them in developing a cooperative attitude with all kinds of people. By emphasizing the negative aspect of Western influence, a student can better understand when he forces his will and values on other people. It will help to enable the student to develop sensitivity toward other human beings.

If we are ever to build and live in a decent world, it is essential that teachers help to develop attitudes conducive to better understanding among all men. One concrete method for promoting this understanding is by introducing a non-Western dimension into your school program.

By adding this dimension, the teacher can ensure that youngsters will be exposed to the kinds of differences with which students must be confronted. Hopefully the cumulative effect of this action will be a constructive influence on the development of positive feelings toward fellow human beings. Certainly it is one step toward preparing today's students to meet tomorrow's world problems - as we become "riders on this planet together."

MODELS FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A NON-WESTERN STUDIES PROGRAM

Non-Western studies programs can be found in a variety of forms in schools throughout the nation. The methods used to develop and implement these programs are just as important as the materials that are used. Often, new materials are adopted and used by a school, or an entire system, without full consideration to the way in which these materials correspond with the overall structure of the program.

Generally, non-Western studies programs fall into one of several categories: sections of individual courses, e.g., a three-weeks African unit in a world history course; a semester-long course, e.g., world cultures, the non-Western world; or a totally integrated curriculum. Each of these has its strong and weak points and these should be considered by school systems, curriculum coordinators, department heads and individual teachers when they are establishing a new program.

The unit approach to non-Western studies is probably the most common and the most popular. Because of the great amount of material which teachers must cover in a years' time, it often is difficult to devote to any one subject, more than a few weeks study. The short, concentrated unit exposes the students to the subject matter but does not require those students who may not be interested to devote a long period of time to it. There are certain drawbacks to the unit or section approach. There is the danger of dibbling and dabbling in a great many subjects without much concentration on any particular one long enough to give the students a feeling of mastery. It also exposes

students to the danger of having to move on to another subject when they may be quite interested in the country, or area, which is being studied. This approach also segments the education of students, making it a great deal more difficult to integrate and inter-relate the various subjects covered.

The semester-long course with a special focus on the non-Western world is fairly popular in the schools of Massachusetts. In those schools surveyed, there were over 260 one- or two-semester courses in non-Western studies, world cultures, or subjects with a similar label. Often, many schools had an area studies course in African, Asian, Latin American or Middle Eastern studies. The basic advantage in such an approach is that it gives the teachers and students time to pursue an area or subject in some depth. Thus, the teacher is not forced to devote only three or four weeks to the non-Western world, but can investigate the field in some detail. Too, it affords the opportunity to integrate some of the materials which are covered in the course so that the students can begin to see some of the relationships between the various areas of the world. Drawbacks of the one-semester course are that, as always, there may still not be enough time to cover all that the teacher or the school wishes to cover; more importantly, there is still the danger that the course will become an appendage to the total school curriculum and not be related to the other adademic activities within the school. When a special course is established, there is always this danger. School personnel should be especially careful to see that this does not happen.

While the totally integrated curriculum is the most difficult, it may reap the greatest rewards of the three. This approach attempts to

relate the materials dealt with in non-Western studies, to every course. This means that each subject will contain some instruction of non-Western concerns. In effect, this is a totally inter-disciplinary curriculum where everything is related to everything else and, hopefully, the students will begin to draw some relationships between what is studied in math, social studies, art and English.

The difficulty in attempting such a program should not be minimized. It requires a great deal of coordination and extra effort on the part of the teachers. It means that the curriculum materials must be carefully selected and arranged. It requires that there be a great amount of communication between teachers, administrators and students. And it also means that teachers will need re-training and continuous in-service programs. The major drawback to such a totally integrated program is that, if it does not succeed, the work of reorganizing the curriculum can be more painful than with the two above-mentioned approaches. Also, the larger the school, the more difficult this approach becomes.

While many will be skeptical of this direction, and pressures will mount to return to tried and tested programs, if the participants are committed to such a new program and are willing to change directions and modify as the need arises, then the possibility exists for a truly innovative and exciting program. While the task is a difficult one, even a partial success will establish a new direction in the teaching of the social sciences and the humanities.

Examples of how a non-Western studies program can be organized are listed on the following pages:

SEMESTER COURSE APPROACH

The following is an example of an African Studies program that would be appropriate in secondary school. This program is presently being used in the Las Virgenes Unified School District, Calabasas, California.

I. Course Overview

The overall purpose of this course is to provide an understanding and appreciation of African life, south of the Sahara, and to develop a sense of importance about this part of the world in the minds of the students. All aspects of African life will be studied, i.e., social, political, economic and cultural. It is hoped that this course will widen the students' experiences and expand their understanding and awareness of themselves and the world around them.

II. Objectives

A. To provide students with a more thorough and objective understanding of Africa than may have been previously presented.

B. To provide an appreciation and understanding of some leading aspects and achievements of African life and civilization before the coming of the Europeans.

C. To provide an understanding of colonial development and nationalism.

D. To introduce students to the problems of adjustment from a tribal to an urban society.

E. To introduce students to the problems of African nations in the modern world.

F. To study African Art, music and dance in order that students may develop a greater appreciation of African cultural achievements.

G. To focus on only the most important realities of Africa, making no attempt to "cover" the area.

H. To develop an understanding of Africa in order to:

1. eliminate ethrocentrism, and

2. Help students examine their own society more objectively by comparing values and life styles of various African groups with the students'.

I. To employ the various disciplines of the social sciences in examining Africa and in giving students the tools of analysis.

III. Unit Description[1]

A. Overview of African geography and anthropology including the significance of anthropological findings over the past ten to fifteen years.

ACTIVITIES

1. Describe the surface and climate of Africa, south of the Sahara. What regions are similar: Different: What is life like in the highlands: The Rainforest? etc.

2. Where is the Nile, the Congo? Other major features, etc.?

3. Where is Oldavai? Who was Louis B. Leakey? What had he been doing? What did he find out?

B. Coming of Age in Africa: Tradition and Change

This unit deals with the process of growing up in Africa. The students will get an inside view of how African children are socialized, and how they learn the rules of their culture. Therefore, the students will get a basic understanding of why Africans behave the way they do--from an African point of view.

ACTIVITIES

1. Write a story about what it would be like to grow up in traditional Africa. Write about your friends and family and your relationship to them.

2. Make an African village in miniature or cook a traditional African meal or do a project showing some aspect of traditional African life.

3. Write a report on the traditional life of some African tribe. Include customs such as marriage, initiation rites, and form

[1] Units B-G after Clark, Leon E. Through African Eyes, Vols. I-VI.

of government.

C. The African Past and the Coming of the European

In this unit students will look at African history through African eyes, wherever that is possible. The first half of the unit deals with the African past up to the coming of the European, around the year 1450. It also explores the value of the oral tradition and of archeology in reconstructing a people's history. The second half deals with the Europeans, particularly in the slave trade, up to the beginning of the colonial period, in the second half of the nineteenth century.

ACTIVITIES

1. Pretend you are a 15-18 year-old African living at the time of the coming of the Europeans. What would you think about them? How would you regard them? What effect on your life would these newcomers have?

2. Pretend you are a European seeing African villages for the first time. How would you feel? What would you say (if you could)? What might your thoughts be?

D. From Tribe to Town: Problems of Adjustment

This unit deals with the problems faced by Africans as traditional life for them changed. The students will learn how traditional values came into conflict with urbanization.

ACTIVITIES

1. Pretend you are a 15-18 year-old who has left his tribal home to make his way in the city. Where would you go? How would you live? What kinds of problems would you face?

E. The Colonial Experience: An Inside View

This unit presents an insider's view of the colonial experience in Africa. In a sense, what it says applies to the colonial experiences of people everywhere in the world. Students will learn how the Africans bitterly resent the intrusion of the West, and at the same time, avidly seek the benefits of Westernization.

ACTIVITIES

1. Pretend that you are a 15-18 year-old African living at the time of the colonial period. What sort of problems do you think you would be facing? What kinds of hopes and fears would you have?

2. Write a report on the colonial experience of an African country.

F. The Rise of Nationalism: Freedom Regained

This unit presents the growth of and the reasons for nationalism. The students will see how the strength of an idea can be transformed into the most dynamic kind of political activity.

ACTIVITIES

1. Write a story about life in some country of Africa during the independence movement. Pretend your father is working in the movement.

2. Students role play the political situation after World War II up to Independence. Write a position paper on some problem--organize demonstrations, etc.

G. Nation-Building: The Problems of African Nations in the Modern World

This unit presents the many political, social and economic problems faced by African nations as they attempt to gain access into the modern world. By focusing on three countries--Tanzania, South Africa and Nigeria, the students will be able to gain insight into the complexity of these problems.

ACTIVITIES

1. Take a country and write a report about some major problems facing that country and what that country is trying to do to solve its problems.

2. Pretend that you are an African leader. What would you do to help your country and its many problems?

H. African Cultural Achievements

This unit presents the many cultural achievements in African

art, music, and dance. Students will gain, not only an appreciation of these arts and an awareness of their role in African life, but their effect on Western cultures as well.

ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare an art show demonstrating examples of African Art.
2. Deomonstrate how African Art and Music have influenced Western art and music.
3. Make a collage exhibiting facets of African life.
4. Present an audio-visual show on some aspect of African art and culture.

IV. Teaching Aids

A. Books

1. Clark, Leon E., Through African Eyes: Cultures in Change, (Six volumes), New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1969.
2. Africa: Emerging Nations Below the Sahara, Tucker, Richard, Managing editor, et al, American Education Publications, Middletown, 1968.
3. Colonial Kenya, Oliver, Donald W. and Fred M. Newman, American Education Publications, Middletown, 1968.
4. Things Fall Apart, Chinua Achebe. Fawcett, Greenwich, 1969.
5. Cry the Beloved Country, Paton, Alan, Charles Scribner's Sons. New York, 1948.

B. Visual Aids

1. Films
   a. "The Nile", National Geographic
   b. African Village Life Films, International Film Foundation, New York.
   c. "The Ancient Africans," International Film Foundation
   d. "Nigeria: Culture in Transition"
2. Filmstrips
   a. Living World of Black Africa, Collier-MacMillan, New York.

b. Zanjafrica, A Study in Interaction and Interdependence, St. Paul, EMC Corporation.

c. African Cliff Dwellers, The Dogon People of Mali, EMC Corporation

d. African Life Along the Nile

e. South Africa and Its Problems, Life

f. Contrasts in Nigeria

g. West African Mask, UCLA

h. Drums of Ghana, UCLA

3. Slides

a. Discovering the Art of Africa, UCLA

b. Treasures and Traditions of African Art, UCLA

c. East Africa and Ethiopia (personal)

4. Records

a. "Miss Luba", Phillips

b. "Sounds of Africa", Verve

c. "Hugh Masekela", Wing

d. Traditional Music of Africa, UNESCO

5. Tapes

a. "Prehistoric Africa"

6. Maps

a. Large map of world, Whenshau

b. Wall map of Africa, Wenschau

c. Individual 8 x 11 maps for charting, filling in, locating, etc.

UNIT APPROACH

The following is the first unit of a tenth grade Non-Western History and Culture Course* taught in the public schools of Springfield, Massachusetts.

Unit #1

Unit Title: Identification of Term "Non-Western"

Introduction

Objectives

1. To identify Non-Western cultures and recognize the difficulties involved,
2. To develop some orientation to a geographical setting,
3. To evaluate the reliability of generalizations,
4. To develop map skills and concepts,
5. To provide knowledge of resource materials on subject.

Focusing Question: How can we identify Non-Western areas?

Questions and Objectives	Activities
1. What do you think the term "Non-Western" means?	Have students write brief statements describing "Non-Western"--discuss statements--classify information (on board) as geographical or cultural. Define terms: culture, society, geography.
2. Can you identify a Non-Western nation using only a map? Why?	Have students go to wall maps--point to nations they believe to be Non-Western. Have students make list of countries named--discuss why nations were selected.

*Social Studies Curriculum Guide, Evaluation Edition, Grade Ten, Non-Western History and Culture, Springfield Public Schools, Springfield, Massachusetts, 1971.

Materials

Topic, A Journal of the Liberal Arts, Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pa. (Article entitled The Liberal Values of Non-Western Studies by Yu-Kwang Chu)--helps to define Non-Western.

Questions and Objectives	Activities
3. What other factors must be used to identify Non-Western cultures?	Show pictures, unlabeled, of people, architecture, landscape, etc., from various parts of the world. Ask students to identify the country or area represented by each picture. Show pictures a second time in same order giving the names of the countries or areas involved. Have students grade their own answers.

Materials

Life World Library, Time, Inc., N.Y., N.Y. (check school library) (Large pictures and summaries).

Picture resource files - Springfield Library.

Story of Nations, Holt, Rinehart, Winston Inc., N.Y.C., pp561+

Questions and Objectives	Activities
4. What effect does climate have on culture which might make ways of life different around the world?	Map work - world map - have students draw latitude lines - Arctic circle, Tropic of Cancer, Tropic of Capricorn, Equator and Antarctic Circle. Label climate regions between lines and brief description of what climate is like in that region. Have students list names of countries in each climate region. Have students compare this list with list made for question #2 and #3. Discuss how climate may affect the culture.

Materials

Blank world maps--rear of guide.

World Studies Inquiry Series
Latin America pp 33-37
Asia pp 34-37
Africa pp 26-33
(geographical charts and maps)

Latin America, Stavrianos
Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

A.E.P. Series - Latin America, Asia, Africa.

Questions and Objectives	Activities
5. What countries of the world do you find difficult to identify as Non-Western or Western? Why?	Briefly discuss cross-cultural influences - difficulties involved in classification of cultures.
6. Do you think that the people of other nations refer to themselves as Non-Western? Why?	Have students draw a world map centering around an area other than North America. Have students read case studies in World Studies Inquiry Series, p 99. Discuss readings.

Materials

Exploring the Non-Western World
Schwartz & O'Connor, Globe Publishers, Inc. pp 35+

World Studies Inquiry Series, Latin America, Africa, Asia.

AEVAC Educational Publications, 1970 - Transparencies Series AS-50, GT-36, AF-43.

Questions and Objectives	Activities
7. Where can you find more information on Non-Western cultures?	Teacher should make available all materials in room--shown and discussed. Let students scan material. Visit school library--Librarian could provide help.

Materials

Other texts cited in specific units.

UNIT APPROACH

The following is an example of a one-week unit on Industrialization in Asia. Key materials for the unit come from Asian Studies Inquiry Program.[2]

INDUSTRIALIZATION

The United States, Japan, and China

Area of Application

a. United States History 1: Rise of American industry before the Civil War.

b. United States History 2: U.S. involvement in Asia in the twentieth century.

c. Asian Studies.

Objectives

Content:

a. Understanding of the nature of an underdeveloped country.

b. Understanding of what the experiences in industrialization have been in the United States, Japan and China.

c. Awareness of the factors necessary before any country can industrialize.

d. Evaluation of the relevance (or lack of relevance) of the experiences of the United States, Japan and China as patterns for the growth of today's underdeveloped nations.

Skills:

a. Reading analytically to isolate key elements of a problem from several sources.

b. Ability to apply these elements to other different situations.

Attitude:

a. Appreciation of the unusual factors in United States industrial

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[2] From Preparation of Teaching Guides and Materials on Asian Countries for Use in Grades 1-12, John V. Michaelis. U.S. Dept. of HEW, Office of Education, Bureau of Research. 1969.

development and of the difficulty of generalizing from our example.

Materials

a. A copy of the readings for each student.

b. A large wall map of the world (not absolutely essential but most helpful).

Procedures

The unit is designed for three-five class periods but can be expanded or contracted at your descretion. The following are suggestions which may prove useful in teaching the unit.

The kinds of questions which a teacher asks his students may be classified by degree of complexity:

A. Knowledge and Comprehension: these range from recall of specifics to translation and interpretation of materials. These are usually asked in the order that they arise from the material.

B. Analysis: these include key elements and relationships. They are usually asked after the last item or element appears in the material.

C. Application, Synthesis, and Evaluation: these include problem solving, pulling ideas together, and judging by internal and external standards. Such questions are usually asked at the end of a lesson or unit and may be used as essay examination questions.

Questions concerning this unit have been classified according to type, and the type is indicated by the letter A, B, or C.

a. Opener (last few minutes of period before beginning the unit): What is an underdeveloped country? If you visited such a country, what would you see - or not see - around you that would tell you it was underdeveloped? (Write all answers which are volunteered on the board and save for discussion.)

b. Distribute the readings to the students, briefly explaining that the purpose of the unit is to explore the reasons that some countries have become industrial and modern while others have not and how industrialization is accomplished.

c. Assignment: Students are to read the Introduction and Part I (3 pages) before the next class period. Write questions for discussion (see d.) on the board, if you wish or simply bring them up in class.

d. Discussion (one or two days)

Part I (Characteristics of an Underdeveloped Country)

What is meant by underemployment? (A)

How did the peasants usually spend what little extra money they had? (A)

How did lack of modern transportation affect trade? (A)

Make a list of some developed or partly developed countries. (A) (Western Europe except Spain and Portugal, United States, Canada, USSR, Australia, Japan, Argentina, Republic of South Africa, Israel)

Is every part of each country developed, or are there underdeveloped areas within countries? Name some. (A) (Asian USSR, American South, tribal South Africa, northern Canada, inland Australia)

In what parts of the world are most of the underdeveloped countries located? (A) (Asia, Africa, Latin America)

From the reading and comments following, make a list of the characteristics of underdeveloped nations. (B)

Compare the list with the one made in class yesterday.

Which of the characteristics cannot be easily seen by a visitor? (B)

Note: Another way of approaching the characteristics of underdeveloped countries is by using a series of overlay transparency maps of the world, showing population, per capita income, rivers, natural resources, etc.

e. Assignment: Students begin reading Part II (5 pages) in class (if there's time) and complete the reading before the next class period.

f. Discussion (one or two days)

Part II (The Process of Industrialization)

What is an entrepreneur? (A) (Man willing to take risks to start a business)

What are factors of production? (A) (What goes into the finished product: iron ore, coal, power and labor - steel)

What crops do big commercial farms grow? (Wheat, corn; cotton, livestock, etc.) Where are they located? (West, South, Middle West)

How could the government lessen competition? (A) (Allowing monopoly, raising tariff on imported industrial products)

What were Japan's problems in trying to industrialize? (B)

What special problems did China have in trying to industrialize? (B)

What was the difference in the role played by government in the United States and Chinese development? (B)

Note: In Japan the government started some industries, then turned them over to private owners. Others were kept; there is more government ownership than in the United States.

China was able to borrow from the USSR. From which countries were the United States and Japan able to borrow? (B)

g. Assignment: Beginning in class, each student is to make a chart showing factors which were important in United States, Japanese and Chinese industrialization. Probably the easiest way to do this is to first list those factors (both directly stated and implied) which were important in the United States, adding others which appear only in China or Japan (or both) at the bottom of the list. A sample chart follows.

Factors	U.S.	Japan	China
Raw material and power resources	yes	yes	yes
Large cheap labor supply	yes	yes	yes
Domestic and foreign capital	yes	?	yes
Entrepreneurs	yes	no	no
Energetic people	yes	yes	?
Transportation system	yes	yes	?
National market	yes	?	?
Specialized labor	yes	yes	no
Commercial farming	yes	no	no
Government favoring industry	yes	?	yes
No wars	?	yes	?
International market	no	yes	no
Borrowing from others	?	?	yes

h. Discussion (one or two days)

From their charts, ask the students to pick out those factors which are essential for industrialization. Make a list on the board from volunteered student answers, asking volunteers to explain why they think a particular factor is essential. (G) Here is a sample list of essentials:

1. A strong government in favor of industrialization.
2. A group of enterprising men to lead the country toward industrialization.
3. Skilled local or immigrant workers.
4. Natural resources or ways of importing them.
5. More farm products to feed industrial workers.
6. Private, government, and/or foreign capital to be invested.
7. A national or international market for products.
8. A good transportation system inside and outside the country.
9. A breaking down of the old ways of thinking and educating the people so they will accept industrialization.

   Now ask why the United States, Japan and China actually started their industrialization process when they did.

10. A situation which pushes the country toward industrialization, such as a new technical development like railroad building, fear or envy of a more developed country, a political revolution, a new foreign market or loss of an old one, foreign aid or investment.

Discussion should now center on how these key elements provided for those countries lacking them, relationships of internal to external means, type of economic system most likely to succeed in providing them, whether a standard answer is possible with different situations in different countries.

6. That the study of another culture should include the study of the student's own culture and his feelings and attitudes towards it. The study of the two cultures can and should reinforce each other.

7. That evaluation of attitudinal change, as subjective as it may be, is essential for effective teaching.

8. That an interdisciplinary approach should be used in the study of another culture.

9. That teachers who have never been to Africa, but who enjoy learning with their students and who do not impose their value judgments about different life styles on others, can be effective teaching about African people.

General Objectives for Introductory Lessons

The lessons are clustered around the following objectives which the authors, from their experience, consider to be the most important introductory attitudinal objectives:

- The student will identify and examine his perceptions of Africa and Africans and examine the sources of these impressions.

- The student will respect African institutions and life styles as the responses of African people to their social and physical environment.

- The student will identify with the roles of members of the African family.

- The student will identify with Africans experiencing social change and recognize that it is a universal phenomenon which he himself is experiencing.

- The student will appreciate various African art forms.

The following lessons are offered only as suggestions for the teacher and are especially directed toward the American teacher who has had little or no opportunity to study Africa and may feel uncertain about how best to introduce Africa to his students.

Selections of specific lessons and objectives should be based on the students' interests and backgrounds, the learning objectives of the class, and the individual teacher's style. Since the lessons are interdisciplinary, they can be easily integrated into the existing curriculum.

LESSON APPROACH

The following are the first two lessons of an African Studies course prepared by members of the Worcester/University of Massachusetts Teacher Corps Program for use in the public schools of Worcester, Massachusetts.[3] The lessons utilize an affective approach centered around performance objectives.

Rationale to Introductory Lessons

Part I is a collection of introductory lessons about Africa. They have been taught successfully by a number of teachers - both black and white - in the Worcester Massachusetts public schools in integrated and all white classes. Students have responded to the activities enthusiastically, they have evaluated them as "good" lessons, and the majority of students have reached the learning objectives. These lessons reflect the author's goal - to develop positive student attitudes toward Africans - and the following assumptions:

1. That students can identify* with Africans, or any people of a different culture, if presented with the appropriate kind of learning opportunities.

2. That one of the first steps in developing positive attitudes towards Africans is either to respond emotionally or to participate physically in African activities or simulations of these activities.

3. That attitudes develop cumulatively, not sequentially. Thus, it is possible to meet attitudinal objectives in a variety of sequences, no one sequence is prescribed, nor can a teacher expect the student to meet the attitudinal objective in one lesson.

4. That affective experiences must be more than "fun" experiences: they must be reinforced by the learning of skills and concepts.

5. That, for both relevance and motivation, lessons about Africa should begin "where the kids are at"; by either relating to the student's immediate environment or actively involving him.

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[3] African Studies Handbook for Elementary and Secondary School Teachers, Part I, University of Massachusetts/Worcester Teacher Corps, August 1971.

*It has the flavor of "empathize with", "respond to emotionally", "have an emotional feeling for".

The lessons are approximately 45 minutes in length, but it is to be expected that they will take more or less time, depending on the interests and previous experiences of the students. The format of each lesson includes the following sections: a rationale of the lesson, specific objectives stated in behavioral terms for evaluative purposes, an interest approach (sometimes referred to as motivation or set induction), the procedure of the lesson, suggestions for alternative and follow-up activities, the comments of teachers who have taught the lesson, and resource materials for teachers and students.

Resources:

Beyer, Barry K. Africa South of the Sahara. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1969. Hardback, $4.65. (T)*

Fantini, Mario D. and Gerald Weinstein. Toward a Contact Curriculum, New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'Nai B'Rith, 1965. Paper, $.90. (T)

Krathwohl, D.R. Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, the Classification of Educational Goals Handbook 2: Affective Domain. New York: David McKay Co., 1964. Paper, $2.50. (T)

Raths, Louis et al. Values and Teaching. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1966. Paper, $3.95. (T)

Webb, Eugene J. et al. Unobtrusive Measures: Nonreactive Research in the Social Sciences. Chicago: Rand Mc Nally, 1966. Paper, $3.59. (T)

*T, teacher reference: H, high school: J, junior high; E, elementary

LESSON #I

Examing Perceptions of

AFRICA + AFRICANS

Word Association Pre-Test

An assessment of the students' knowledge and perceptions of Africa is highly recommended. The teacher can use the students' responses as a guide in the selection of topics or objectives he will emphasize when teaching about Africa. The students should be assessed again at the completion of the study of the continent to determine if their impressions of Africa have changed.

Since students often are reluctant to express their ideas about the unfamiliar, this test requires only a one-word response. While this lesson was originally used in the sixth grade, it could probably be used from the third grade up.

General Objective

The student will identify and examine his perceptions of Africa and Africans and will examine the sources of his impressions.

Specific Objectives

1. The student will state his own impressions of Africa and Africans in a word association pre-test and will learn his classmates' impressions through a tabulation of the results of the word association pre-test.
2. The teacher will assess his students' perceptions of Africa by tabulating the results of a word association post-test.

Materials

1. Flash cards of a few well-known words and words from the association exercise.

Interest Approach

1. Make some flash cards with such words as "food", "TV", "friend",

and "game" on them. Tell the class that you want them to tell you the first word that comes to their minds when they see each flash card. Accept responses from all students who want to give them.

2. Tell the class that they are going to play a similar game in making word associations with Africa.

Procedure

1. Tell the students that you are going to show them a flash card. (Or, use the chalk board instead.) They are to write the first word that they think of relating to Africa. Assure the students that there are no right or wrong answers for the exercise. The words are:

Africa	house
animal	work
land	resource
people	leader
clothing	game
transportation	color
communication	country
weather	recreation

2. Have the students pass in their papers. Tell them that tomorrow you will let them know how the class answered the questions as a group. Save the students' papers so that you can compare their associations at the end of the study of Africa.

3. The next day give each student a copy of the tabulation of the group's responses. Ask them if they have any comments. Have them discuss their responses with each other. Ask them what an outsider could learn about the class by looking at the summary. Guide them to recognize that he would know some of their ideas about Africa.

Alternative and Follow-up Activites

1. For the classes above the intermediate grades, flash cards are not necessary to introduce the lesson.

2. Discuss stereotypes and how they are formed.

3. For high school students teach the lesson "Introduction to the study of 'other' people"; for elementary school, teach

"Films and Africa." (See Table of Contents)

4. Choose the next topic by identifying the areas in which the students have the most misconceptions about Africa.

Teacher Comments

6th grade: It was essential to emphasize that the students should write the first word that came to their minds and not try to find the "right" answer. My students thoroughly enjoyed sharing each other's responses; it was well worth spending the time going over responses to each word. During the discussion, the students again had to be reminded that there is no single right answer.

After studying African rural family life for three weeks, I re-administered the same association test and tabulated the responses. The students compared the two sets of responses to see how their impressions of Africa had changed. Following is a comparison of my students' responses to the item "work" before and after studying Africa. Although they still regard Africa as primarily rural, their responses are somewhat more representative of the occupations and work activities of Africans.

Pre-Assessment		Post-Assessment	
23%	rubber plantations	36%	farming
10	hunting animals	15	planting
10	pottery	12	teacher
6	gathering food	9	cooking
6	dishes	9	office
6	weaving	6	get sticks
3	food	6	harvesting
3	plantation crops	3	fishing
3	slave	3	not too much
3	sheep herding	3	easy
3	making baskets		
3	playing		
3	picking berries		
3	trading		
3	packing loads on camels		
3	gardening		
3	no preachers		
3	occupation		
3	not much		

Resources

Beyer, Barry. Africa South of the Sahara. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1969. Hardback, $6.95: paper, $4.65. p. 8-15 (T)*

* T, teacher reference; H, high school; J, junior high; E, elementary

Hall, Susan, "African Mythology", in African-American Institute, Are You Going to Teach About Africa? New York: African-American Institute. Paper, $2.00 (T)*

* T, teacher reference; H, high school; J, junior high; E, elementary

LESSON #2

Open-Ended Statement Pre-Test

An assessment of the students' knowledge and impressions of Africa and Africans is highly recommended. The teacher can use the students' responses as a guide in the selection of topics or objectives he will emphasize when teaching about Africa. The students can be assessed at the completion of the study of Africa to determine if the students' impressions of Africa have changed.

This exercise documents the students' immediate reactions to the words "Africa" and "Africans". Although it is subjective in style, it may be one of the more reliable methods of determining students' perceptions of Africa.

General Objective

The student will identify and examine his perceptions of Africa and Africans and examine the sources of his impressions.

Specific Objectives

1. The student will state his own impressions of Africa and Africans on an open-ended statements pre-test and will learn his classmates' impressions.
2. The teacher will assess his students' perceptions of Africa.

Interest Approach

1. Explain that the class will be studying about Africa and that you need some information before teaching the material.

Procedure

1. Ask the students to complete the following statements:
   a. Africa is ...
   b. African people are ...
   c. When I hear the word Africa I think of ...
   d. Africans probably think America is ....

e. Africans probably think Americans are ...

f. Some things I know about Africa are ...

g. I would like (I would not like) to go to Africa because ...

2. Look over the papers when they are handed in. Discuss some of the statements with the students.

3. Ask the students what an outsider could learn about the class by looking at their papers. Guide them to recognize that he would know some of their ideas about Africa.

Alternative and Follow-Up Activities

1. Discuss stereotypes and how they are formed.

2. For high school, teach the lesson "An Introduction to the Study of 'Other' People." (See Table of Contents.)

3. For elementary school, teach the lesson "Films and Africa". (See Table of Contents)

4. Choose the next topic by identifying the areas in which the students have the most misconceptions about Africa.

Teacher Comments

5th. grade: It seemed to be an effective pre-test/post-test because there were definite changes in the students' impressions of Africa indicated on the post-test.

11th. grade: When I gave the test, I had to reassure the students constantly that there are no right or wrong answers; it was not a test to be graded.

5th. grade: I used this exercise before and after a two-week unit on the African family. It was quite easy to get a general idea of the students' changes in attitude by reading through the tests. To get some more definite ideas I counted the number of responses on "Africans are..." which were positive (i.e., indicated a respect for a different culture or recognized the variety of Africa), neutral, or negative (i.e., used pejorative terms or stereotypes). The results were:

	Pre-test	Post-test
Positive	8	20
Neutral	11	8
Negative	11	1

I divided the responses to "When I think of Africa I think of...." into geography and animals, people and social structures, and technology. The results were:

	Pre-test	Post-test
Geography...	19	9
People	3	18
Technology	0	6

Resources

Books:

Beyer, Barry. Africa South of the Sahara. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1969. Hardback, $6.95; paper, $4.65. p. 8-15. (T)*

Hall, Susan, "African Mythology", in African-American Institute, Are You Going to Teach About Africa? New York: African-American Institute. Paper, &2.00. (T)

* T, teacher reference

Of all the fields of education, the area of the methods of instruction has received the greatest amount of attention. Practically every certified teacher has had some instruction in "how to teach". Often, these courses are the most practical of those which a prospective teacher has, but they are also often the most disliked. In the area of non-Western studies, the case is just the opposite. Most of the work has been in curriculum development and planning, with little or no attention given to the methods that a teacher can use in the classroom. In addition, it is often assumed that the same methods apply to non-Western studies that "worked" for other parts of the curriculum.

Too often, classroom teachers resort to the lecture, question and answer, "answer-the-questions-in-your-textbook" approach for the lack of anything better to do. While they spice up the class occasionally with something different, the same format is frequently used for everything that is taught in the classroom. Most of these current techniques depend upon a more traditional, academic exchange rather than giving the students an opportunity to be involved in the learning themselves.

This section presents a variety of methods which are appropriate to the teaching of "non-Western studies" in the schools. Many of them are not new, and many teachers have used some of them in different forms. On the other hand, a good many have not been used or tested in the classroom. These are not "the" methods to use with a particular part of the curriculum but rather are an attempt to broaden the repertoire of techniques and activities which a teacher can utilize.

Why do we suggest these for "non-Western studies"? Because the

study of other cultures and peoples often has little to do with the factual knowledge which a student learns. So much is related to the feeling that a student may develop for a particular country, people or c[redacted]m. Information transmittal, while efficient, often does not provide this other level of learning which is important for the students.

Many of the methods are experiential. These techniques go beyond the purely cognitive level. They deal with the affective domain of a child's learning as well. Thus, the learning which takes place may be different for different students in the classroom. Some may get information out of the activity; others may learn more about themselves and their feelings. The teachers who will use these methods must be prepared for this difference in student reactions and learning and must be equally prepared to deal with their own reactions.

Some of these methods require extra effort on the part of the teacher. They are not often easy to organize and conduct. They may require extra research and thought, as well as some creativity that will make them both relevant and interesting to the students. However, the results from these should be well worth the effort. Additionally, the students themselves may, at first, have trouble with some of these "new" ways of learning. When students are accustomed to a lecture-discussion type classroom, it is often difficult to make the change to a more involved way of learning that requires more effort on their own part.

Each one of these will not be a resounding success the first time you try it. As with anything new, you and the students will make mistakes. The hardest part may be to try it the second time. Analyze what went "wrong" and how it can be improved. Get students' opinions and then give it another chance.

We do not want to over-emphasize the difficulty with using these methods and scare off good teachers. On the other hand, we feel it is necessary to point out some of the hazards. We feel, however, that once teachers become accustomed to using some of these "newer" methods they will find them more fun for the students and for themselves.

We recognize that not all of these methods are appropriate to every classroom and to every teacher. Some teachers will feel more comfortable with some than with others. However, we would encourage all to experiment with these techniques and to see what differences they might make in the learning that takes place in their classes.

CONTENT ANALYSIS

General Description:

Content analysis relies on analyzing reading materials, films, graphics, etc., for their content and their approach. Students are asked to look at different examples of these, some obviously biased and some not, and are asked to arrive at some opinions about the material and its "slant".

This method is designed to increase students' and teachers' awareness of the bias, value orientation and tone of materials, especially textbooks and newspapers. By critically examining various points of view, the students should be better able to recognize how they are affected by them.

Group Size:

This can be used with an average size class, although a small group will allow more student participation.

Time Required:

There is no specific time required. Much depends on how the teacher wants to use content analysis and how much time he or she wants to spend. It can be a part of many different lessons and, in some cases, might be the start of a semester's or year's work.

Materials Utilized:

1. Content Analysis Materials (readings, films, pictures, records, etc.)

Physical Setting:

A normal classroom setting is adequate. Moveable chairs would be an asset but are not necessary.

Process:

1. Hand out or show the examples to be analyzed. If the students are examining written materials, they should read them and mark the words or phrases which reflect bias or are value-laden, as well as make notes on the overall tone.

2. You may want to write on the board the things the students should look for. Among them are: "loaded" words; paragraph or phrase bias; selective use of facts; half-truths; stylistic peculiarities.

3. After students have examined the materials, they should share their analysis with other class members and discuss any differences in interpretation. If they do, you should encourage them to look at why they have different interpretations.

4. Other exercises students can do are:

   a. finding and analyzing their own passages from texts and other materials.

   b. re-writing selected passages to make them more "fair";

   c. taking an incident or subject and writing their own passages, which the class can analyze to see if it is biased.

Special Instructions:

Readings are the most convenient material for content analysis but films and other visual media are quite good and should be used when possible. When selecting a passage, be sure to select one that is not so obvious that it is "easy" (although you may want to start out with one). Students will catch on quite quickly and it is the subleties which we often miss.

Resources:

Fersh, Seymour. "Semantics and the Study of Culture". Social Education. May 1965.

_____, "Looking Outward." in International Dimensions in the Social Studies: 38th Yearbook. Washington, D.C. National Council for The Social Studies, 1968.

Foreign Policy Association, Foreign News and World Views. New York. Foreign Policy Association. 1968.

Examples:

The following examples illustrate one way content analysis can be done. Passages dealing with the same event were taken from three textbooks and these were used for comparison:

SECTION A

1. The Sepoy Mutiny

British annexations in India continued to be challenged. Differences between the practices of Europeans and the beliefs of peoples of India were major causes of tension. In 1857 a number of Indian troops (the Sepoys) became angry because they believed that the rifle cartridges given to them by British officers were coated with cow and pig grease. The Hindus considered the cow to be a holy animal and the Moslems considered the pig to be too unclean to touch. This grievance combined with other factors to produce the Sepoy Mutiny (1857). During this uprising many Sepoys mutinied and massacred the British of Delhi and other cities. After a number of atrocities by both sides, the mutiny was brought under control. Roselle, A World History, p. 537.

2. A dramatic event now occurred which led to an explosion, the Sepoy Mutiny of 1857. The British had begun to make use of a new rifle in India. Cartridges for these rifles had heavily greased ends. To get at the powder in the cartridge, the soldiers had to bite off the greased end. Rumor spread that the grease was made of the fat of cows. This was very upsetting to Hindus who believed the cow to be sacred. Another rumor said that the fat came from pigs, an animal considered unclean by Moslems. Indian soldiers of both faiths became even more distrustful of the British. Their suspicions that the "foreigners" wanted to convert them to Christianity grew. Even though the British said that vegetable fat, not animal, could be used to make the grease, the rumors were like "straws that broke the camel's back". For Indian soldiers it was like a spark setting off an explosion. Koleyson, The Afro-Asian World, p. 428.

3. The Indian Mutiny

The final transfer of power to the government took place following the Indian Mutiny of 1857. This revolt began when a new kind of cartridge was adopted for use by the British Army in India. The army consisted of British officers and Hindu and Muslim soldiers. These soldiers were disturbed by the fact that the new cartridges were smeared with grease and had to be bitten between the teeth before being placed in the rifle. The story spread that the grease was a mixture of cow and pig fat. For religious reasons Hindus could not touch cow fat, and Muslims, pig fat. So the new cartridges were the spark that set off the mutiny.

At the center of the revolt was something more important. Many Indians joined the rebellious soldiers because they hated changes that the British were making in India. Mughal aristocrats and Maratha chiefs resented having been displaced by the British and they hoped to recover their lost power and prestige. Soldiers from the disbanded armies of the aristocrats and chiefs

were angry at their loss of employment. Orthodox Hindus were upset by Christian missionary attacks on their religion. And learned Brahmin priests and Muslim scholars felt threatened by technological innovations which were undermining people's respect for the sacred knowledge and ceremonies. How could a peasant believe that all knowledge worth possessing was in the head of a Brahmin when he saw a steamboat on the Ganges or a railroad with its shrieking iron horse which belched flames and smoke? Stavrianos, A Global History of Man, p. 488.

SECTION B

1. In June, 1967, the Egyptians closed the Strait of Tiran leading to the Gulf of Aqaba. This Gulf served as an outlet to the world for ships sailing from the Israeli port at Eilat. After several days of waiting to see if the nations of the world and the United Nations would undo what Egypt had done, Israel decided that she had to solve her own problems.

On June 5, in a powerful and lightning thrust by land, sea, and air, its military thundered against Egypt and her allies in Jordan and Syria. In three days the back of Arab military strength was broken and their arms and supplies lay all over the desert wastelands. Israel's overwhelming victory wrecked the efforts of the Arab nations to rally together to get rid of that small nation once and for all. Kolevson, The Afro-Asian World, p. 572.

2. The combination of the closing of the Tiran Strait and the concerted Arab mobilization led the Israeli government to decide on preventive war. Beginning with air attacks on June 5, the Israelis in a few hours destroyed half the air forces of Egypt, Syria, and Jordan. Then their armies quickly advanced, and by the cease fire on June 10, they had reached the Suez Canal and the Jordan River, and occupied Jerusalem, the Gaza Strip, and Sharm el-Sheikh on the Tiran Strait. Israeli losses totaled only 679, as against 10,000 to 15,000 Arab casualties. Once again the Israelis were the victors, thanks to their interior lines of communication, their superior officer corps, and their high morale born from the knowledge that they were fighting for sheer survival. Stavrianos, A Global History of Man, p. 648.

3. War broke out on June 5, 1967, each side charging the other with responsibility for starting hostilities. Vowing to crush the 19-year-old nation, Egypt, Jordan, Syria, Iraq, Kuwait, Sudan, Tunisia, Morocco, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Algeria, and Yemen joined the conflict against Israel. Arab radio stations spoke of a "Holy War", and Israel's 2.7 million people faced over 100 million hostile Arabs surrounding them. Roselle, A World History, p. 717.

SECTION C

1. In the early 1960's Africa had a population of nearly 275 million. About 70 per cent of the inhabitants were of Negroid stock; about 22 per cent were Europeans. Most of the people in Africa were engaged in agriculture.

In the second half of the twentieth century many old ways of life continued in Africa. Yet Africa was changing rapidly. Students were studying at the University of Ghana. Farmers were beginning to use scientific methods to plant cotton in the Sudan. Africans were learning that a serum was more effective than a magic mask in guarding against disease. Yet many problems remained in Africa in the post-World War II period. In the 1960's the people were still fighting poverty (average yearly income per person ranged between $89 and $132), illiteracy (about nine out of te were illiterate), and disease (average life expectancy was 40 years). They also had to establish new relationships with foreign powers. Roselle, A World History, p. 719.

2. A representative of the United Nations flew to Leopoldville on the Congo River in Africa. Climbing out of the jet airplane, he stepped into a car and drove through a modern city. On each side of the streets in the center of the city he saw shiny hotels, new office buildings, tall apartment houses, and fine stores.

A few days later his business took him into the interior. As he stopped at a village just a short drive from Leopoldville, he immediately noticed the mud huts of the villagers and the simple costumes they wore. Many people had not yet learned that their country was now independent from Belgium or that Leopoldville was a new and modern city, bursting with activity. Their chief interest was in getting enough food to eat or hunting down a leopard that had been killing some of their cattle.

Today, Africa is filled with contrasts, for it has one foot in the past and one foot in the future. The "old Africa" is changing so rapidly that it is difficult to keep up with it. As changes take place in the cities, they begin to have a greater and greater effect upon the "old ways". As a result, all of Africa is beginning to show change. In some places the change is considerable. Kolevson, The Afro-Asian World, p. 580.

3. A TV announcer advertises a program set in the grassland game reserves of East Africa as a "story of jungle adventure"; a magazine article refers to the "stone-age natives" in a West African country where Africans have been using iron for many, many centuries. Such inaccurate ideas persist in spite of Africa's increasing importance in world affairs. Millions of Americans still think of Africa south of the Sahara as a vast, steamy

jungle, principally inhabited by man-killing beasts and naked hunters ignorant of the 20th century world we share. Only by learning more about Africa can we begin to distinguish the facts from often long-held myths.

Africa has long been important to the world and to the United States. Mankind's first great technological revolution, in which people learned to shape stone into tools, occurred in Africa. Much later Africa, like Europe, contributed a large number of its people to pioneering the New World. About half of the world's people of European descent live outside of Europe, while about a third of the people of African background live on other continents. Now that most of Africa has regained its independence, Africa has more votes in the United Nations than any other continent.

From the very first decades the American colonies were built through the efforts of Africans as well as Europeans, and these two groups have played the predominant roles in American history ever since. A long history of trade existed between the United States and pre-colonial independent African states; and after the slave trade was outlawed, Americans in their clipper ships became the leading Western traders along the coast of East Africa. Today more than 11 per cent of Americans have some African ancestors, and in their struggle for equality they are testing whether within a Western culture, liberty and justice can encompass all races. Stavrianos, A Global History of Man.

CRITICAL INCIDENTS

General Description:

Critical incidents are short, one- to two-paragraph accounts of a cross-cultural event or situation. They usually contain a problem that must be resolved in some way. The incidents may be taken from the teacher's or students' own experiences or from the experience of some other resource person, such as a foreign student, a returned Peace Corps volunteer, etc. They may also be adapted from textbooks and supplementary readings. (See Examples.)

They are primarily discussion tools, used to summarize and highlight a particular problem situation. Because various members of the class will have opinions on how the situation should be resolved, the technique also helps explore different values and attitudes of individuals in the class. The teacher can also choose to use them as a device to teach the process of consensus reaching and compromise.

Group Size:

This can be used with a normal class size or students can be broken into smaller "problem" groups. These groups should not be of more than 8-10 people. This size is best for the consensus-reaching activity.

Time Required:

Most critical incidents can be discussed in one class period, and often several can be discussed in an hour. Depending on the group, however, the examination of an incident can run into several periods. Consensus reaching may also take a little longer.

Materials Utilized:

1. Critical Incidents
2. Rating sheets (if used)

Physical Setting:

Any standard classroom. Moveable chairs are highly desirable (almost essential) for the small group work and for large group discussion.

Process:

1. The written critical incident should be handed to the students. After they have had a chance to read and think about it, the teacher should ask for different opinions as to how the problem should be resolved.

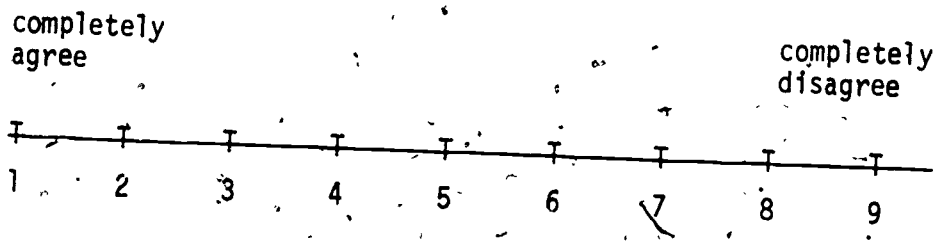
2. As the discussion continues, the teacher should step out of the role of leader and allow the students to debate the ways of solving the problem. Remember there is no one solution so the students shouldn't be looking for the answer.

3. After there has been an adequate amount of discussion and most of the major alternatives have been presented, the teacher should step in and summarize the various alternatives. You may find additional information is needed about the culture, and the students may want to do some research of their own.

4. You may want to use a critical incident as a consensus reaching device and, if so, you should add to the incident a resolution or solution to the problem. This can be one you already know about or one which you write yourself.

a. Divide the class into small groups of 8-10 students and give them the incident. Tell them they have a time limit to reach a decision about what to do.

b. They are first given a rating sheet that looks like this:



Each individual student is to record his own judgment on the incident and the outcome on the scale first; then the group is given the task of (1) arriving at a group consensus rating; (2) giving a mutually agreeable reason for the rating and (3) an acceptable substitute action in the incident. Voting or averaging is not allowed. When this is finished they are to bring their results back to the large group for review and discussion.

Special Instructions:

Critical incidents can be taken from almost any situation, whether from "real life" or from readings. They should be clearly written and present a problem situation which does not have an obvious answer.

There are some things to keep in mind when writing a critical incident (or case study):

** Decide what "points of view" you want to use--"I" (conversational or autobiographical) or "he" or "third person" (conversational or biographical).

** Make sure to choose a situation where: (a) value conflicts exist: (b) people represent differing points of view: (c) issues are cultural, political or economic.

** Balance "good" and "bad" points so the choices are not obvious.

** Decide on the specific point or purpose of the critical incident (or case study).

** Decide on what the teacher's role will be: "Socratic", "Devil's Advocate", "Neutral Observer".

** Think about how the critical incident (or case study) will fit into other parts of the unit or lesson you are organizing.

Resources:

Wright, Albert R. and Mary Anne Hammons. Guidelines for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training. Estes Park, Colorado: Center for Research and Education, Washington, D.C., Peace Corps, Office of Training Support, 1970.

Example: Critical Incident

The following is an example of a critical incident developed from a passage in a textbook.

"In the countryside the village hoja or preacher still has a strong influence over the peasants. The nature of this influence can be seen in the following sermon preached by a hoja before a congregation of women whose morals he feared would suffer from contacts with the city:

'A certain army officer had a sister whom he allowed to live in evil ways. On her face she wore paint. Her hair was cut short and uncovered to the eyes of men. Her dress was indecent. She displayed bare arms and naked legs to the public gaze. This indecent woman soon sickened and died--a judgment of God.'

--A Global History of Man--pgs. 504-505

Critical Incident:

"I am proud to say I am a free girl who comes from a liberated family. I am allowed to dress as city people dress and wear short skirts and have my hair cut short. I like the new ways. One day, however, I got into trouble. When I was coming out of my house, a crowd was gathered in front and a preacher was speaking to them. He was speaking against a modern girl: 'On her face she used paint. Her hair was cut short and uncovered to the eyes of men. She displayed bare arms and naked legs to the public gaze.' As I came out of my house, the preacher suddenly pointed to me. 'There is one', he said, 'there is one of those girls.' I didn't know what to do, whether to advance or go back into the house, whether to speak or be still."

Other Critical Incidents

1. After going to school abroad for five years, Sutira returned to her country, where her large extended family lived in the capital city. When Sutira told her father that she wanted to find an apartment with a friend in another part of the city, he was troubled. He had plenty of room here and, besides, she was part of the family. Her education was a thing of prestige to the family. Sutira felt she wanted her own life, however, and proceeded to find a new place, even though it cost her much of her savings.

2. Mr. Subramaniam is a senior Indian Government Official, who was attending a conference in a European capital. Lonely one evening at the hotel, he saw a European seated nearby in the lounge and struck up a conversation.

The man, a Mr. West, was unfamiliar with India but was nontheless amiable and expressed interest in Mr. Subramaniam. During the conversation, a friend of Mr. West's passed by. Mr. West introduced Mr. Norton (the friend) to Mr. Subramaniam, and Mr. Norton said how glad he was to meet Mr. Subramaniam, and so on. Shortly, Mr. Norton asked Mr. West if he could have dinner with him the following evening. Mr. West

accepted enthusiastically. Neither man asked Mr. Subramaniam, who was right there, if he would like to go.

Mr. Subramaniam, feeling unwanted and ashamed, asked to be excused and left immediately.

3: My father was an important chief in our province during the colonial period, so I used to accompany him to important functions. One of these was the coronation of our Sultan. When the Sultan entered the great hall everyone else stood; but the British officials quickly sat down. I was shocked; it reminded me how our roles are mainly for show, while they have all the power.

I am a mature civil servant now, and have been able to send my three oldest children to England to study.

CASE STUDY

General Description:

The case study is similar to the critical incident but is much more extensive and detailed. Where the critical incident highlights a situation, the case study explores it in depth. The case study is more like a story, with chapters, than one vignette. As with critical incidents, discussion is an important part of the case study method where the students can express their opinions and explore different values and attitudes.

Case studies are extended explorations of a particular situation. They can range from several to many pages and may become very complex, with many different characters and points of view. They may or may not demand a decision or resolution at the end. There are some sources of case study material but they may also be constructed from one's own experiences or those who have had cross-cultural experiences such as foreign students, returned Peace Corps volunteers, businessmen, etc.

Group Size:

As with critical incidents, case studies can be used with a normal class size; but they work better in smaller groups, where students can participate more in the discussion--ten to twelve students would be ideal.

Time Required:

Normally, a set of case studies would be used over a long period of time--several weeks perhaps. A single case study could be the basis for one class period or could extend longer, depending upon the class and the case study material.

Materials Utilized:

1. Case Study Material

Physical Setting:

Any standard classroom. Moveable chairs are highly desirable, especially if the group is broken into small groups. If it is a large single group, arranging the room in a single circle is important for the discussion.

Process:

1. The written case studies should be handed out to the students, and after they have had time to read and think about the particular one appropriate for this class, the teacher should begin by asking for different opinions on the case and the resolution.

2. The teacher may want to step out of the role of discussion leader once the conversation gets started. He or she may want to remain only as a clarifier, or if the discussion lags, as an initiator of a different point of view.

3. When it seems as if the discussion has come to a satisfactory ending point, or even before that time in some cases, the teacher should summarize the discussion and the major points. As with the critical incidents, there are no "right" answers and students should understand this.

4. At this time you may want to proceed to another case, or you may want to relate the discussion to other parts of the lesson or unit.

Special Instructions:

In many instances case studies are gathered in a single booklet around a central theme. However, they may also be solitary cases which fit into other materials.

To write case studies will require some extra effort, but it will pay off in the reality a case study brings to discussion. When developing your own, you should keep in mind the points listed under this heading in the "Critical Incident" section.

Resources:

Wright, Albert R. and Mary Anne Nammons. Guidelines for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training. Estes Park, Colorado: Center for Research and Education: or Washington, D.C., Peace Corps/ Office of Training Support, 1970.

Spicer, Edward, ed. Human Problems in Technological Change. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1952.

Niehoff, Arthur. A Casebook of Social Change. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1966.

Examples: Case Studies

I. The frail, old, almost totally blind lady appeared at every clinic session and sat on the dirt floor enjoying the activity. She was dirty and dishevelled, and obviously had very little, even by Malaysian kampong (local village) standards..

One day the visiting nurse happened upon this woman in her kampong. She lived by herself in a rundown shack about 10 by 10 feet. When questioned how she obtained her food, she said she was often hungry, as she only received food when she worked for others -- pounding rice, looking after the children, and the like.

The nurse sought to obtain help for the woman. It was finally resolved that she would receive a small pension from the Department of Welfare which would be ample for her needs.

At each weekly clinic, the woman continued to appear. She had become a center of attention, laughed and joked freely, and obviously enjoyed her increased prestige. No change was noted in her physical status, however. She continued to wear the same dirty black dress and looked no better fed.

The nurse asked one of the rural health nurses to find out if the woman needed help in getting to a shop to buy the goods she seemed so sorely in need of.

In squatting near the woman, the rural health nurse noted a wad of bills in the woman's basket. "Wah," she said, "It is all here. You have spent nothing. Why is that?"

The woman laughed and then explained: "I am saving it all for my funeral."

Discussion Guide:

How do people approach activity?

What are the important goals in life?

What is the nature of humour?

What is the nature of social reciprocity?

What is the attitude toward problem solving?

What is the nature of property?

What are the relationships between man and nature?

What personal qualities are valued?

What are the attitudes toward change?

Case Study:

2. During a busy clinic session, a mother brought a girl about four years old to the nurse. Upon examination, it was found that the child had a fever of 103°F., and had been suffering from diarrhea for three days. When questioned, the mother said that the child had been unable to take rice for "some time".

The mother was advised that medication at the clinic would not suffice. She must bring the child to the hospital for consultation. She was advised that she and the child could go to the hospital that day in the medical vehicle. However, because she had other children at home, the mother said she would first go home and arrange for their care and go to the hospital later.

The following day, when the nurse checked the hospital, the child was not there. When she asked the hospital attendant about the case, he answered that the mother had brought the child to the dispensary, but because she had screamed and become hysterical, he had sent them home.

As soon as she could, the nurse traced the child to her village, and discussed the matter further with the mother. During the conversation, it was learned that the child's older brother had had similar symptoms about two weeks previously. It was mentioned by the child's grandmother that another child in the family had died two years before in the district hospital of "fever". The nurse re-examined the child and found the temperature now to be 104°F. She explained to the mother and grandmother the danger of convulsions and further complications and then personally sponged the child. Finally the mother agreed to take the child back to the hospital but the child refused. Therefore, nothing could be done. The nurse decided that she would return to the clinic, get the medical vehicle and personally take the child directly to the hospital.

That afternoon the nurse returned to the village with the vehicle. She proceeded directly to the house and found several neighbors and older women sitting on the floor near the child. Some betel nuts, a bottle and a small burning lamp were on the floor near the child. The child appeared to be resting quietly on her mat. The usual greetings were exchanged and the nurse took her place on the floor near the mother. Shortly she was offered some coffee.

The nurse then suggested that they prepare to go to the hospital. The mother watched quietly as the nurse went to pick up the child who now appeared asleep on the mat. The grandmother then stated that it was not necessary to take the child to the hospital since she was no longer ill. The women sitting near the child nodded their heads in agreement.

The nurse examined the child and found her temperature now to be 101°F. The child roused at that point and the grandmother proceeded to feed her a bottle of water which the child took, along with a banana. The grandmother commented that there was no need to send the child to the hospital since the Tok Bomoh (traditional medicine man) "had taken care of it". The mother nodded agreement and the conversation turned to something else. Shortly thereafter the nurse drove back to the clinic.

The following day she again returned to the child's home. The child was up and about, and eating small amounts of rice. Although the child appeared to be recovering, the nurse was convinced that a relapse would occur unless preventive actions were taken. Despite her efforts to convince the mother that continued treatment was necessary, the response was always the same: "Tok Bomoh has taken care of it." The nurse tried several times to explain why it was impossible for the Bomoh's treatment to be effective, and that although the child looked well, it might actually be sick. Finally, the nurse became adamant in her concern and demanded that the child be sent to the hospital for "proper" treatment. To this, the grandmother replied: "Proper treatment has already taken one child from us." Insulted, the nurse left.

The next time the nurse visited the village, she was approached by the village chief before making her rounds. He assured her that everyone was well, and that her services were not required, saying: "I'm sure that nurse has better things to do."

Discussion Guide:

What different attitudes toward health and healing are demonstrated here?

What are the differences perceived between a hospital nurse and a village spirit doctor?

How are decisions made in different societies? What constitutes authority?

What different attitudes toward child rearing are suggested here?

What relationships are perceived between man and nature?

SITUATIONAL EXERCISES

General Description:

This is essentially a short, free-form skit, partially written in advance, using one or more "actors" who have had time to rehearse their parts. It is similar to the role play, but does not require the participants to behave in a certain way as the role play does.

The student is given only a general description of the setting, and he must rely on his knowledge of the culture and his wits as he thinks and acts on his feet in an unfamiliar situation. The "actors" need to be people of some self-confidence who will help move the situation along. Foreign students willing to participate would be the best "actors", but this may not always be possible. Good planning is a must for the success of situational exercises.

Group Size:

There is no particular group size, but it would be difficult to have a successful situational exercise in a class larger than 25-30, since the participants may feel threatened by a large group.

Time Required:

No particular time. Situational exercises can be done in 2-5 minutes or can run 20-30 minutes, depending upon the situation and the participants. One class period would be sufficient.

Materials Utilized:

1. Scenario
2. Individual Roles
3. Props (dress, artifacts, etc.)

Physical Setting:

Any standard classroom. One with moveable chairs is most suitable.

Process:

The initial steps in setting up situational exercises are similiar to those of constructing a role play. A scenario should be decided upon, roles

constructed and written out and, when possible, a consultee with someone of that culture to check out the details. The situation should be constructed to highlight the differences between the culture being studied and the students' own backgrounds, and should pose, implicitly, some problem needing resolution (a 'white' youth in a 'black' home, a Westerner in another country, etc.).

1. Distribute the scenario to the entire class, who will be observers. This is the only information they will receive.

2. Distribute the roles and a scenario to the "actors" being careful not to expose one role to the other.

3. Set the stage both physically--with props, furniture, etc.--and educationally by preparing the observers and participants for what they are going to do. (There is a tendency, especially at first, to treat role plays and situational exercises lightly, so the teacher's role is very important in setting the right mood.)

4. When all are clear on their parts, start the exercise Let it run as long as you feel it is productive, but generally when things begin to lag, it should be stopped.

5. Follow with discussion, perhaps 20-30 minutes, organized around these suggested topics:

   a. What was each of the individuals trying to accomplish?

   b. What were the problems?

   c. What differences did you notice in each individual's behavior? What non-verbal differences did you observe?

   d. How do you think each felt during the scene?

6. After observers have shared their ideas on these, allow the participants to give their own reactions to the same points.

Special Instructions:

Care must be taken in writing the situation so it is believable--and performable. You might have to try several situations before you get the right one. Be sure that the scenario is written as non value-laden as possible. It should be a simple description of the facts and should not bias the reader one way or the other. Make sure the roles are clear and descriptive, but do not make them so rigid that the participants have no freedom of action.

Try as hard as possible to check the accuracy of the exercise before

conducting it. This is a powerful teaching devise and stereotypes and inaccuracies are often exaggerated with these types of methods.

When selecting a student for the situational exercises, do not necessarily chose the one who will "perform" the best, but one who can benefit personally from the experience.

The exercise could be used again with an observer, and even though he would have more information and benefit from the first students' participation, the exercise can still be a valuable comparative tool.

If video-tape equipment is available, the entire exercise can be recorded and then played back immediately or at a later time.

Resources:

Wright, Albert R. and Mary Anne Hammons. Guidelines for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training. Estes Park, Colorado: Center for Research and Education; or Washington, D.C., Peace Corps, Office of Training Support, 1970.

A Situational Exercise

The Situation: A Tutoring Project

Because it is a large urban school serving a somewhat unstable population, Bourdin School has found it difficult to maintain close relations with members of the community. One particular aspect of this problem is the increasing number of immigrants to the community from different ethnic and racial backgrounds whose children are often very unprepared--from a cultural and language standpoint--for the academic and social expectations of the school.

The principal, in an effort to improve the school's service to the community, set to work with members of the English department and student leaders and introduced a program whereby older student volunteers would offer tutoring to younger children from immigrant families. These lessons would be given in the family's home. The school hoped that the service would result in more rapid adjustment to school life for the new student and increased confidence in the school on the part of the new parents. It might also offer a good cultural experience for the tutor.

Mee Loon is 15. Her parents have very recently emigrated from Hong Kong. Her English teacher at Bourdin, observing her difficulty with English, recommended to her the student tutoring service, and suggested she explain about it to her parents. If they agreed to the sessions, the school would select a student to come to the house and arrange a tutoring schedule suitable to the family.

John, a 17-year old student in his final year of secondary school, was told yesterday that the parents of a Chinese girl, Mee Loon, were interested in someone to tutor her in English. John agreed to visit the house which was located in the Chinatown district, and start tutoring her as soon as possible.

Roles for the Situational Exercise

Mr. Chow (Father)

You are the absolute head of the family in the traditional manner. Although you had little opportunity for formal education yourself, you are quite happy that your daughter, Mee Loon, is getting educated. You try to bring up your daughter according to traditional ways. You have had very little contact with Bourdin School yourself.

It made you apprehensive to learn that the school was going to send instead of a teacher, a young man--a student--to teach your daughter. It also seemed uncomfortable for you that this young man would be coming to your house for fear of what the neighbors might make of it.

When the young man arrives, you will be further concerned about the length of his hair, his clothes, and perhaps his unusual glances.

Mrs. Chow (Mother)

You have observed with keen interest the developments concerning these English lessons since they concern your daughter. You are a sympathetic person although you are relatively unexposed. Your husband is usually the spokesman for the family to the outside world and you are therefore not outspoken with important matters. You would, of course, abide by any decision your husband makes. You are always courteous.

Mee Loon (New Student)

You are rather quiet, particularly in the presence of a teacher or your parents. You have been having a difficult time with several subjects at Bourdin School, in large part, because of the need for English lessons. Your English teacher seems to want you to start taking lessons but you do not feel strongly one way or the other. You have been brought up to respect authority.

John (Tutor)

You are eager to begin this new project. Besides the tutoring, you look forward to learning about Chinese culture. Although you have studied about other foreign societies, you know little ablut Chinese customs and traditions. You surmise that Mee Loon and her parents will welcome you as someone who can introduce her to your country and its customs. You are a good student and a responsible young person.

ROLE PLAYS

General Description:

Situational exercises and role plays are very similar and are often confused. The difference is mainly in the degree to which the individual "actor's" personalities are allowed to be incorporated into their roles. In contrast with situational exercises, where the participant is encouraged to improvise and act as if he is in a real situation, role plays are more structured and the roles are much more detailed.

As with situational exercises, role playing can be an extremely effective technique for having participants experience, at first hand, some of the aspects of a culture which they may have only read about or discussed in the abstract. It is a chance to translate these ideas into action. Especially valuable is the opportunity for the participants to be emotionally, as well as intellectually, involved in inter-cultural learning and to be able to reflect on the experience. Role plays also provide the opportunity for students to act the part of someone different and to gain new perspectives through placing themselves in somone else's shoes.

In role plays, there is often a scenario as well as the roles for each of the actors. The roles are descriptive of how the person would behave in this situation, and the participants are expected to conform to these "instructions". Because of the roles, it is not necessary that the "actors" be foreign students.

Group Size:

There is no particular group size, but it would be difficult to have a role playing situation in a class of more than 25-30, since participants may feel threatened by a large group.

Time Required:

No particular time. Role play situations can be done in 5-10 minutes or can run 20-30 minutes, depending on the situation and the participants. One class period would be sufficient.

Materials Utilized:

1. Scenario
2. Individual Roles
3. Props (dress, artifacts, etc.)

Process:

The initial steps in setting up a role play are similar to those of constructing a situational exercise. (See "Situational Exercise). The difference is that the role play will be much more specific in the definition of the characteristics of each role. Because of this it is almost imperative that a representative from the "other" culture work with you, or at least revise the roles you have written. Inaccuracies and stereotypes are very easily conveyed and, if so, the role play may do more harm than good.

1. Distribute the scenario to the entire class; the members will be observers. This is the only information they will receive.

2. Distribute the roles and a scenario to the "actors", being careful not to expose one role to the other.

3. Make sure that each person understands his or her role and that there is no student who feels so uncomfortable with a role that he doesn't want to proceed. There is often some natural, initial reluctance among some students, but there are others who, for a variety of reasons, do not want to play a certain role. They should not feel forced to do so.

4. Set the stage, physically and educationally. (See "Situational Exercises").

5. A role play can continue as long as it seems productive--or until there is an impasse in the situation.

6. Follow with a discussion, perhaps 20-30 minutes, organized around these suggested topics:

   a. What was each of the individuals trying to accomplish?

   b. What were the problems?

   c. What differences did you notice in each participant's behavior? What non-verbal differences did you see?

   d. To what extent was the behavior of each person suitable to his task? How effective was he or she?

   e. How do you think each felt during the encounter? How could you tell?

   f. How might you have approached the role? (any one)

7. Allow the participants to share their reactions to the same points and to the other "actors". Their comments should indicate (a) how they felt and (b) how they might have conducted themselves to feel more comfortable.

and/or be more effective.

Special Instructions:

Roles must be written clearly and credibly. In situational exercises the instructions can be fairly loose but, since the role play is more structured, it is necessary to be explicit in the roles.

The scenario should be as neutral as possible. It should be a simple, objective statement of the situation and should not bias the reader one way or the other.

Check the accuracy of the role play before conducting it.

After using the situation once, try having the same "actors" change roles and run through it again. Or have new "actors" try their hand.

As with situational exercises, video-tape equipment can be a valuable tool.

Resources:

Wright, Albert R. and Mary Anne Hammons. Guidelines for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training. Estes Park, Colorado: Center for Research and Education; or Washington, D.C., Peace Corps, Office of Training Support, 1970.

Stewart, Edward C.: Danelian, Jack; and Foster, Robert J. Simulating Inter-Cultural Communication Through Role-Playing. Washington, D.C., Human Resources Research Office, George Washington University.

Example:

The following role play, while it deals with a situation faced by Peace Corps volunteers, is an illustration of what can be done with what appears to be a fairly simple problem. In this example, we have not included a scenario; you may want to try your hand at writing one for this situation.

Volunteer Dick

My seventh class had no books. Nearly every day at various times for eight weeks I went to the storeroom where the supply of books was kept. Each time I was told that the storekeeper was out and that no one else, not even the principal, had a key. I gradually began to visualize this keeper of the keys as a mythic man of giant proportions. But one day he actually appeared at the storeroom--a wrinkled little man in a grey turban.

I told him that I needed 120 English Book I's for my seventh classes. I could see the books piled in neat but dusty stacks on the shelves. He looked at me in a puzzled way. "Where are your books?" he asked. Thinking that he had not understood my Persian I said, "No, you don't understand. I do not have any books. That is why I am here. I need to get books for my three seventh classes. I need 120 books."

"No, no," he said, standing firmly in the doorway. "I cannot give you books unless you give me books. I am responsible for the books in this room. I am a very honest man. If I give you the books then I won't have any books and how will I explain an empty storeroom that was given to me full of books?"

I tried to be patient with the old man. But I had to make him understand the necessity of my getting the books.

I had worked orally with my students all this time, but each day they asked me, "Where are our books, maalem sayb?" (teacher, sir). They were eager to have them, particularly since all the upper classes had books. I had tried various ways of writing out exercises from Book I as I remembered them, but the school had no duplicating machine and this meant writing out 120 papers by hand.

The textbooks had been printed by the Ministry of Press, with the help of volunteer printers, and the government was most anxious to distribute them all over the country in an attempt to standardize the English classes. The Peace Corps was a vital part of this effort. It was hard enough to have to listen to my students clamoring for books every day, but it was even harder to accept the fact that because I was unable to get books for my classes I was going against the goals set up by the Peace Corps and the ministry.

When my kids went on to eighth grade they would be poorly prepared indeed if they had never worked with an English text, never learned to read type-printed pages (students have a hard time making the jump from hand-printed to type-printed words).

I was responsible for teaching these boys and I owed them my best efforts. What would I have given them if, at the end of the year they didn't know how to read and they were unprepared for the work of the next

grade?

The most frustrating part of all this was that the books were there in the very same building as my students. The books were sitting in the storeroom waiting to be used and my students were sitting in the classroom waiting to use them. All that stood between the books and the students was a locked door and an illiterate man with the key to open it.

The storekeeper was unable to accept my reasoning, was unmoved by my pleading, and when I told him that I would take all responsibility for the books and promised him that every book would be back in place at the end of the year, he merely laughed as if he thought I were mad. He could never understand that not using the books was the same thing as not having them.

I went to the principal to see if he could intervene on my behalf, but there was nothing he could do since he had no key and the inspector from the ministry would probably not come for several months.

Time was passing and I was getting more and more desperate. I talked and talked to the storekeeper but he remained invincible.

We could have a thousand PCV teachers in this country but if there was a storekeeper behind each one, nothing would get accomplished. I don't see how Afghanistan is ever going to progress if everything is kept locked up to rust and mold. It's enough to make you give up and go home.

Kubhan Ali

It is not every day that an old man like me has the honor of being appointed to a government job. The people of my village are very poor and we have much difficulty in our lives. I will do this job well and the government will perhaps look with favor upon my son. Our people are used to hardship. My many years of life have seen many evils and have given me some knowledge of the ways of men. If it be the will of Allah, I shall do my work well and bring honor to my family.

Truly, it is a great responsibility for me to be entrusted with the room of many fine books. I have not seen such books before in my life. Even though I must travel a great distance from my village to the school I am proud to do so. Certainly this school is a very fine school to have so many books.

There is the man from Kabul who comes to the school during the year to look at the storeroom. He wears a Western coat and leather shoes. He is an important man with a high position and it is my great honor to please him. Should he take a good report of my work to the ministry it will be very fortunate for my son, my family and my people. It is a great pleasure for me to see in my lifetime such things come to pass, Allah be praised.

There are some things in my work that, with my humble background, are difficult to understand. How can I explain to the young and impatient man from America about my position? He has very strange ideas. He does not understand that these boys will lose the books. They are well meaning boys but they are mischievous. When the inspector from Kabul comes to see the books and finds that the books are not here I will have to pay for them and how am I to do that? What shame it would be for my family. What should the man from Kabul think of me when he finds that some of these valuable books are lost? And what should he think if he comes to see his humble friend Kubhan Ali and finds instead the young man from America sitting by the storeroom with the key? He should think, now my friend from the mountains has gone back to the mountains. These people are not suited for such work as I had suspected all along. That would indeed be a terrible thing. I would disgrace my family, my son would have to be content to farm, his children would be unhappy. No, such a thing will not occur. By the guidance of Allah, I am a good and honest man and I will live up to the responsibility given to me.

I do not understand what that young man says about his students. I know his students and they are very content with him. He is indeed a strange fellow. Imagine, a man from America becoming a guardian! That is truly a strange idea. He seems unhappy here--such a village must be difficult for him. In America, villages are very large. Perhaps his unhappiness makes him discontent with our people.

He does not understand that my responsibility is to make sure that nothing happens to these books. He wants me to have an empty storeroom! What should I do if I had no books to look after? Each time I come I count the books and make sure they are neatly stacked. Each time all the books have been counted and I have not lost one book. This is my responsibility. How can a baker make bread with no flour?

The Inspector

It is very difficult to deal with these people who keep our storerooms. They have little understanding, no education, and cannot be trusted. One must be very firm with them or else there would be all kinds of corruption and dishonesty. It is my responsibility to see that such corruption does not occur. I have forty villages to inspect in _____ Province--indeed a great responsibility.

I must keep my eye on old Kubhan Ali--he is the newest storekeeper in the district and, as they say, a new servant can catch a running deer, but he is only Hazara and his family is poor. Those people must be watched because we cannot expect very much from them.

Also many new supplies were recently sent to that school and it is necessary to make sure that they do not get misplaced. The ministry has been able to increase the production of textbooks, much to the benefit of our country and we must see that every school in Afghanistan has the new English books.

I am very careful to keep records of what has been given to the schools in my district. At the beginning of the year we supplied a total of 300 books to the school where Kubhan Ali keeps the storeroom. Each time I go to that school I must make sure that none of the 300 books has been misplaced. The people in the smaller villages are ignorant and do not know how to take care of books and we must teach them the value of having these books.

I know only too well how difficult it is to make the students understand this. As soon as they get the books they sell them in the bazaar and they become lost. They leave them outside and they become dirty. They make marks in them with their pens. Therefore it is important to make sure that the fine books printed by the ministry are not lost and ruined.

I am not sure about this Kubhan Ali. It is necessary for me to be very firm with him and to make sure he pays for any books that he loses because of his carelessness or irresponsibility. If the storekeepers in my district lose books or become subject to bribes it is because I have not been firm enough with them. How will I explain lazy guardians in my district? How can I write my report and say that we gave out 300 books at the beginning of the year and at the end of the year there are only 200? Truly this is not good for me. The ministry has given very direct instructions to all inspectors not to tolerate lazy or irresponsible guardians in our district. It is necessary for our country to develop responsible people.

Volunteer Joe

As far as I'm concerned, Dick is doing more harm than good. If he'd just stop running around long enough to realize how things really work in this country, he'd be a lot more effective. If he's here to help these people learn how to teach English, he's going to have to play the game by their rules. Afghan teachers certainly can't go running to the Peace Corps office every time they need books. A Volunteer should be inventive enough to make good use of what he does have--even if it's only a blackboard. As a matter of fact, my students only have worn out copies of Michael West Readers--that is, about one-third of the class does. So what I'm trying to do is to take exercises out of the one copy of the English text which I have and tie them in to the work in the reader. I've convinced Abdullah, the other English teacher, to come in and watch my lessons once a week and then I go watch him while he tries to teach the same lessons to his students. He, too, has only one copy of the official text, and he uses his one book and his blackboard. I can't say I'm making tremendous progress, but I think I'm accomplishing something.

(The Book Debate exercise involves a common problem and one that creates much tension for Volunteers. The role of the host national, however, is drawn with sympathy and logic. Contrast this view of a host national's behavior with the description (drawn from a Peace Corps Handbook) of "The Teacher" in another culture. This second study gives an "explanation" of the host teacher's behavior backed by a great deal of factual material. It is, however, a superficial and ethnocentric explanation. Staff should emphasize the qualities of empathy and cultural respect in the development of their materials if they wish them to be acceptable to the trainees and effective.)

The Teacher

(Description of a co-worker written by a PCV for a Peace Corps Country Handbook.)

For a Peace Corps Volunteer to try to influence the professional behavior of a host country teacher is a little bit like trying to give directions to a talking marionette. He may understand what you have to say to him, and agree wholeheartedly with your ideas, but unless you can get through to the puppet-master way up there pulling the strings, the marionette is highly unlikely to do anything you want him to.

This analogy is admittedly a crude and rather pessimistic one, but it does illustrate some rather important relationships between the PCV, his fellow teacher, and the educational hierarchy. For it is indeed an unusual

teacher who does anything differently from the way it has been done traditionally without the prodding of a directive from national or provincial officials.

It is not difficult to understand this state of affairs if one considers the nature of teaching as a profession in this country. Traditionally, the teacher has ranked in the highest social classes in the country's society--obvious from the fact that the respectful term of addressing a man of any profession is "Honored teacher". In modern times the teaching profession spans the middle class socially and economically.

Working conditions for host country teachers, although abysmal to Western mentality are actually rather comfortable. While many hours are spent at school--50 hours/week is common--the average teaching load for a secondary school teacher is 20-25 hours per week, with 30 or 35 hours being an unusual load occuring only in schools giving illegal but common and required extra-curricular lessons designed to boost their students' performances on entrance examinations. These classes usually mean extra pay. At certain times of the year teachers, especially home-room teachers, are given large amounts of administrative paperwork to do, while everyone moans and groans for a couple of weeks each semester over grading quarterly examinations. But during the rest of the semester, thanks to a system that does not require lesson preparation, homework or quizzes, everyone spends 3 or 4 hours a day between the morning and afternoon teachers' meetings comfortably lounging around the teachers' room, chatting with friends; reading, or snoozing at their desks. In the winter the pot-bellied coal stove becomes the center of everyone's life.

Peace Corps Volunteers inevitably prove incompatible with this cozy society, and with few exceptions have arranged their teaching schedules in such a way that they leave the school on certain days of the week, forsaking the sewing circle for projects elsewhere. This certainly puzzles most of the faculty members, who consider socializing and staring at the ceiling as valid a part of their life as the oral textbook reading that constitutes a lecture to their students. Without centuries of the Christian ethic to drive them (for host national idleness is not only not a sin, but is preferable to labor) what to the American teacher is intolerable boredom is to his host national counterpart a natural state of being. And thus the PCV intent on making grassroots changes in host country education finds himself floundering around in the wide gulf that separates Eastern and Western cultural attitudes toward work and education.

For it is a plain fact that in its present stage of Westernized development, this country has not gone very far toward adopting our idealization of education as an adventure and work as a fulfillment of one's potentialities. For host nationals education is boring drudgery that one endures in order to get a job that is nothing more than a rice bowl, plain or fancy. One puts as little into both as is required to get by, and achieves satisfation in life from camaraderie, from the achievements of his sons, and from the rest of the web of human relationships that make up the essence of society.

Hence the individual teacher does not often consider the possibility of trying new ideas or approaches, even though he may be aware of and even impressed by the merits claimed by foreigners for such techniques. His job is to prepare students to pass the next entrance examination; this has always been done by lectures from the textbooks, which happens to be the most effortless way to teach; as long as the Ministry of Education is satisfied, why should he go to the trouble of worrying about these imported ideas?

As soon as the Ministry gives more than lip service to new teaching techniques and curricula, however, the teacher rapidly becomes concerned. Then this becomes relevant to his rice bowl, and there is no question of his compliance with any order that is issued and enforced from the capitol.

SIMULATIONS AND GAMES

General Description:

The difference between games and simulations is very small; games usually have some scoring system and are played with tokens, where simulations normally do not. They are both related closely to situational exercises and role playing, since there are elements of both of these in games and simulations.

The general definition of a game is that it is a contest between opponents for an objective controlled by rules; a simulation is an operating model of a physical or social situation. This is a technical differentiation, and you will often hear them referred to as simulation games.

They can be purchased through a number of designers, or you may want to develop your own. They can be used at almost any level and in most subject areas. They are especially useful in the study of other cultures and systems and have the advantage of involving larger numbers of students than role playing or situational exercises.

Group Size:

This varies depending upon the game. Some are designed for as few as two people and others have as many as thirty. If the simulation game has a small number, you may want to set up several versions of the game going on at the same time.

Time Required:

Most simulation games take over an hour, and some can be played for days or weeks. It would generally be a mistake to try to shorten a game because of time restraints.

Materials Utilized:

This depends on the game and what is provided with it, if it is commercially sold; or if you design one yourself, whatever you decide to include. In either case, be sure that you have all the materials needed before you start.

Physical Setting:

Again this depends in large part on the simulation game, but generally the normal classroom is adequate. Moveable chairs are an asset. In some instances, you may have to find a larger space, such as a gym or auditorium, or several classrooms.

Process:

The specific procedure depends upon the individual games or simulation you are using. Commercial games have their own instructions with a detailed sequence of events. There are, however, some general comments that can be made.

1. Make sure you are clear on all instructions and details of the simulation or game before introducing it in class. Check the sequence and scoring system, if any, so that you can answer any questions.

2. Hand out materials and explain rules or details of the game. Give the students time to look over the materials, read the instructions and ask any questions before the game starts.

3. Set up the playing area physically and have all equipment needed ready for use.

4. As the simulation game progresses, your role as teacher will be that of a game master or referee--interpreting the rules, keeping time, settling any procedural disputes. You should be available, but do not inject yourself into the game unless it is absolutely necessary.

5. As the game concludes, collect the materials and total the score, if any, and rearrange the room for discussion. The discussion is as important as the simulation game itself, and you should be prepared to spend a good amount of time discussing the game. Generally, the discussion should touch on these points:

   a. What happened during the game?

   b. Who "won" and who "lost"?

   c. How did you feel during the game? How do you feel now?

   d. How do you feel about the others?

   e. What would you do differently?

   f. Why do you think people acted as they did?

   g. What was inevitable about the game? What was under the participants' control?

   h. If a simulation, how accurate do you think it is?

Special Instructions:

As mentioned before, it is important to be clear on rules and procedures before starting so there are no mix-ups during the simulation or game. If you are designing your own, you should play it several times to work out any bugs there might be in the game.

Games can be a powerful learning device, but this depends a great deal upon the kind of discussion following the game. You should give as much thought to the discussion as the playing of the simulation game itself. Written and tape recorded impressions would also be valuable.

An important part of the discussion should be the emotional aspect. Simulation game situations can become very serious and intense, and bring to the surface strong feelings. Talking about attitudes and values is important and should be given attention equal to the content of the game.

Designing your own game or simulation is not difficult but does take time. There are some basic guidelines to follow:

1. Define the objectives.
2. Determine the scope of the game.
3. Identify key actors.
4. Determine the actors' objectives.
5. Determine the actors' resources.
6. Determine the interaction sequence among the actors.
7. Determine the decision rules or criteria actors are to follow.
8. Identify external constraints on the actors.
9. Formulate scoring rules or win criteria (if applicable).
10. Choose form of presentation and sequence of operation.

Resources:

Gordon, Alice Kaplan, Games for Growth, Palo Alto, California: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1970

Nesbitt, William. Simulation Games for the Social Studies Classroom, New York: Foreign Policy Association, 1968.

MIXED CULTURE GROUPS

General Description:

Mixed culture groups are small groups organized for learning about aspects of various cultures from the members of the group. Typically, at least two different cultures are represented in the group although many more can be included if so desired. Often the members of the groups exchange information, questions, impressions, and feelings about the cultures represented and about each other.

This technique may take some special arrangements and a little extra preparation but the results may be well worth the trouble. This would be a supplementary, "real life" situation to study about different cultures. It would introduce many students for the first time to some of the elements--and difficulties--of communication.

Participants would be students from the class on one hand, and individuals from other cultures on the other. The best source for these would be foreign students from area colleges. While there would be an age difference, in some cases this could be minimized. The focus of the group would be on some of the customs and cultural similarities experienced between members of the group. The group should move from the purely exotic or superficial aspects to more basic assumptions about ways of life, such as ways of raising children, work attitudes, dating-courtship, customs, respect for elders, clothes, friendship, etc.

The groups could be run on a continuing basis--once a week, twice a month, once a month--and could be done informally at someone's home, if possible, after school.

Group Size:

The group should not exceed 12-15 participants for some of the same reasons as noted in "Small Group Discussions".

Time Required:

Depends on group and purpose of groups. On the average, each meeting should not last more than two hours.

Materials Utilized:

No specific materials are necessary. They should come from within the group. You may want to provide a reading or film to stimulate discussion, however.

Physical Setting:

Should be as comfortable and informal as possible. Anything which is conducive to an easy flow of conversation should be tried: comfortable chairs, quiet surroundings, coffee and cokes, etc.

Process:

Much of this depends on where the group wants to go. Consult the "Small Group Discussion" Section for specifics about process.

Special Instructions:

Mixed culture groups have a special function and are not appropriate for everyone. Proper planning and preparation are important for their success.

Students may want to bring questions and points of information with them to the first session. Be careful, however, not to let the "discussion" turn into a "Meet the Press" session where the students do all the asking and the foreign participants do all the answering.

Resources:

Wright, Albert R. and Mary Anne Hammons. Guidelines for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training. Estes Park, Colorado: Center for Research and Education; or Washington, D.C., Peace Corps, Office of Training Support, 1970.

Hoopes, David S. ed. Readings in Inter-Cultural Communication; Volume I. Pittsburgh: Regional Council for International Education.

Doob, Leonard, ed. Resolving Conflict in Africa: The Fermeda Workship. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1970.

CULTURAL ASSIMILATORS

General Description:

Cultural assimulators are, in essence, a programmed approach to learning about a culture. They have been developed by a group at the University of Illinois for training purposes. They can be obtained from this group or an experienced teacher could write his own.

This technique can be used individually by students without the direct help of the teacher. After completing several of the exercises, the class can discuss details of the cases and do further research if necessary.

Group Size:

Can be used with any size group, but discussion afterwards should be in smaller groups.

Time Required:

Varies. This depends on the individual student and on how much time is spent in discussion.

Materials Utilized:

1. Cultural Assimilators
2. Paper and Pencil

Physical Setting:

A normal classroom setting is adequate. Moveable furniture is desirable for discussion.

Process:

1. Hand out the cultural assimilator materials. Give students time to examine them and ask any questions they may have.

2. Students should go through the assimilator step by step according to the instructions.

3. When students are finished they may want to compare answers and discuss why they answered as they did.

Special Instructions:

If one devises cultural assimilator type materials of his own, it is very important that their accuracy be checked, thoroughly. Because of the type of materials, if there are inaccuracies, these can be misleading and can be more damaging than instructive. You should use the "Cultural Assimilators" already published before trying your own.

Resources:

"Cultural Assimilators" for various countries can be obtained from the Group Effectiveness Research Laboratory, Department of Psychology, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

Examples:

An Arab student asked his co-workers on his lab assistantship if they wanted to go to lunch with him at the Student Union. They agreed, adding that it was time to eat, and they all chatted as they went to the union where they got in line at the cafeteria. When they reached the cashier's station, the Arab student who was first in line, paid for all of them. When the group got to their table, his two co-workers insisted on giving the Arab student the money for their lunches. The Arab refused it, but the Americans insisted; and the one sitting beside him swept the money off the table and dumped it into the foreign student's jacket pocket. Later, the Americans commented that the Arab student had been unusually quiet and reserved while he ate his lunch.

If the Americans had analyzed this incident correctly they probably would settle on which one of the following explanations for the Arab's behavior during lunch?

1. The Arab graduate student must have had an upset stomach. Go to page I.

2. It is the Arab custom not to talk during meals. Go to page II.

3. The Arab student had wanted to pay for their lunches and he was hurt that they wouldn't let him. Go to page III.

4. The Arab student felt the Americans thought he was too poor to pay. Go to page IV.

5. When he was away from the lab, the Arab had nothing to make conversation about. Go to page V.

I

You chose 1: The Arab graduate student must have had an upset stomach.

This is a bad choice. Apparently you missed a key point.

A stomach upset can come on suddenly--but if it does, would one continue to eat and watch others do the same?

II

You chose 2: It is the Arab custom not to talk during meals.

Sometimes people may want to eat in silence, but if such is their mood, why would they suggest that other people eat with them? While the members of some cultures do dine in silence, this is not the custom with members of the Arab culture.

III

You chose 3: The Arab student had wanted to pay for their lunches and he was hurt that they wouldn't let him.

Most Americans would not, under the circumstances, interpret the Arab's invitation (an ambiguous word, isn't it?) as implying that he intended to pay for their lunches. However, in Arab culture, a suggestion that others join you in eating is an indication that you are inviting them to be your guest; it is a gesture of hospitality and generosity.

No wonder the Arab student was upset! As the situation evolved, it really was for the Arab basically a case of the guests' supplying their own food after they had accepted his invitation.

Aside from the confusion, the student must have felt over the apparent inconsistencies in the behavior of the Americans, he probably also felt that their behavior was deliberate rejection of his hospitality--and, therefore, of his friendship as well.

All over the world acceptance of generosity and hospitality involves a more or less rigid obligation to repay in an approximately similar form sometime.

A generous Arab, when thanked, may say, "Don't thank me; you will repay me someday."

An American refusing an invitation to be a guest is much more likely to say, "Let's go 'Dutch'."

IV

You chose 4: The Arab student felt that the Americans thought he was too poor to pay for all the lunches.

Incorrect. You have overlooked significant information which should have indicated to you the correct information.

This thought may have passed through the Arab student's mind, but it would probably not be the first one, nor the one mainly dwelt upon. One of the other alternatives would provide a better explanation of the young man's behavior.

Re-read the passage, noting carefully what happens and how each of the people involved behaves toward the others at each point in the episode.

V

You chose 5: When he was away from the lab, the Arab had nothing to make conversation about.

Wrong. Your answer is inconsistent with the given information.

Since we've all met some people as narrow in their interests as this, is this choice culturally relevant?

Furthermore, this choice practically contradicts the situation as described in the passage.

Outside a classroom during a ten-minute break, several Americans and an Arab student were exchanging ideas about a project on which they were working. When they had first come out for the break, most of the Americans took out cigarettes and lit them. The Arab student watched them; then, hesitantly he finally took out his pack of cigarettes and lit one. After the break had ended and they returned to their project work, the Arab student was very quiet, and he seemed slightly hostile when he did speak.

Which of the following do you think is the most likely reason for the apparent change in attitude on the part of the Arab student?

1. He had said all that he could. Go to page VI.
2. He didn't like the brand of cigarettes the Americans smoked and was contemptuous of their choice of cigarettes. Go to page VII.
3. He was reacting in a natural manner for an Arab student in an American university; i.e., his moods change quickly. Go to page VIII.
4. He was offended that the Americans had not offered him a cigarette. Go to page IX.
5. He thought that the project work done after the break was silly. Go to page X.

VI

Your answer was 1: He had said all that he could.

It is evident by your response that you have completely missed the point.

The incident indicates that the Arab student not only was quiet but he also showed signs of hostility. If he had just run out of ideas, would there be any reason to be hostile to the others?

VII

Your answer was 2: He didn't like the brand of cigarettes the Americans smoked and was contemptuous of their choice of cigarettes.

No. Do not fall asleep on the job.

This is an incorrect choice. Would most people become hostile or withdrawn over other people's brands of cigarettes?

VIII

Your answer was 3: He was reacting in a natural manner for an Arab student in an American university; i.e., his moods change quickly.

A very poor answer. You are wrong.

It is not natural for an Arab first to be friendly with a group of people and immediately afterwards to be hostile and withdrawn. A change of this sort is caused. The question is: Who or what caused the change described in the paragraph?

IX

Your answer was 4: He was offended that the American had not offered him a cigarette.

Good: This episode was fairly difficult. The selection of this alternative is indicative of good judgment.

This may seem like a trivial matter to an American since Americans are used to buying and smoking their own cigarettes. But to an Arab, offering someone a cigarette or anything (e.g., food, drink, etc.) that you are about to enjoy yourself is only common courtesy, especially when you are in the role of host--no matter how broadly conceived the role may be. In this incident, for example, in relation to foreigners, Americans are essentially seen as hosts by the Arab student. An Arab would only neglect to offer a cigarette to someone if he wished to show his dislike of the other person.

X

Your answer was 5: He thought that the project work done after the break was silly.

What happened? That was not a difficult choice.

Perhaps he did, but is there a statement to this effect?

SMALL GROUP DISCUSSIONS

General Description:

Discussions are used by many teachers in many ways. Everyone feels he can conduct a discussion and, in one sense, he can. It is not difficult, but there are some basics to keep in mind when having a small group discussion in the classroom.

Small group discussions are not appropriate for every teaching situation. You have to decide when they will work best. They do, however, have some characteristics which should help you make that decision. Discussions place more of the responsibility for learning upon the student; he or she must contribute or there simply won't be a discussion. They use the resources of the group, in large part, and don't depend upon outside stimuli for information or to do the teaching job. They also provide a sense of participation among the group.

Group Size:

Discussion groups can be of various sizes, but generally the best size for optimum participation from the students is 8-12. In a classroom with 20-25 students, several small discussions would be necessary, with non-participating students engaged in other work. Any discussion group larger than fifteen begins to get unmanageable and increases the possibility of non-participation of some students.

Time Required:

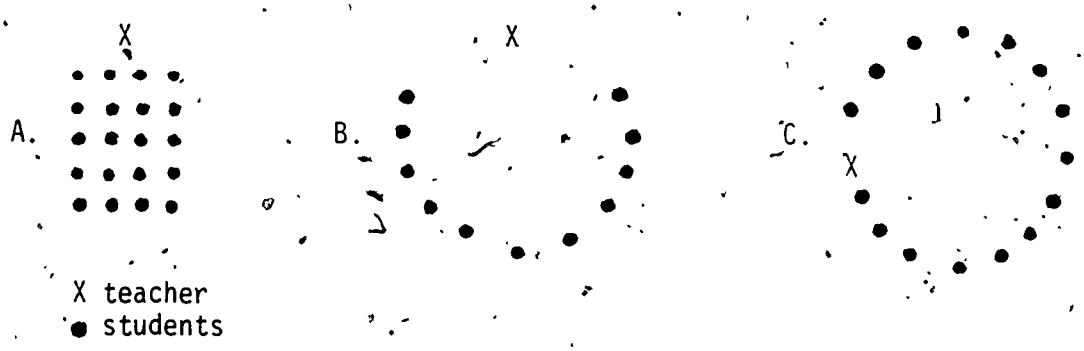
This varies with the discussion and the group. You can have a good discussion in one class period, if the topic is specific enough. But others can run to several hours and thus may require several class periods. This is something you have to be the judge of, as the leader.

Materials Utilized:

This also varies with the discussion, but generally there would be some stimuli to begin the discussion--a reading, film or experience. You might want to provide back-up materials to enrich the discussion.

Physical Setting:

This is an important part of discussions and one often ignored. Below are three commonly used models:



X teacher
● students

In A, the teacher is at the front in a traditional classroom arrangement. In this situation it is very difficult for some students to talk to others, especially those sitting behind each other. It is hard to have an easy flow of conversation and, as a result, the teacher becomes the central focus with the lines of discussion to and from the teacher.

In B, the teacher still remains the central figure because of his or her position, but the students can see each other more easily and the likelihood of dialogue should be increased.

In C, the teacher physically removes himself from being the central focus and becomes part of the circle. With this arrangement, there is the possibility for a free and open exchange between the participants and the teacher, if he wishes, can almost bow out of the discussion.

Process:

There have been many books written on group process. If you want to find out more in detail, you should consult these. However, here are a few observations about group discussions which may be helpful.

1. Subject matter--No matter how good a class or how excellent the leader, if the content of the discussion is not interesting, chances are the discussion will not be either. Discussions are usually best when there is some controversy and several alternative solutions which the participants can choose from.

2. Participant roles--In almost every group there are some standard roles which people assume and which the leader should be aware of. A few of these are:

   a. The Authority--an individual who has all the "facts" and is anxious to let people know he has the answers. Sometimes this can be helpful and other times harmful to a discussion, especially when he states the facts with such authority that no one will contest him.

b. The Non-Talker--This is perhaps a discussion leader's biggest problem: how to get everyone participating, especially that person who just doesn't say anything. In some cases, this is an indication of shyness, of not feeling comfortable with the group, or of disinterest. On the other hand, the non-talker may be participating a great deal non-verbally, and this should be kept in mind. No one should feel forced to talk in a group.

c. The Non-Stop Talker--On the other hand, the non-stop talker can be just as detrimental to a discussion, whether the individual is saying something of substance or not. If an individual is monopolizing the conversation--you, as leader, may have to find ways to give others a chance to speak also.

d. Fence-Builder/Mediator--This individual can be helpful at times and at others, put a damper on the discussion. If he is avoiding any disagreement and conflict and thus tries to mediate from the beginning, the discussion may never get off the ground. At a certain point, however, an individual who is mediating can be very helpful in summarizing the discussion and in bringing closure.

e. Leadership Roles--As the teacher, you will find yourself the "leader" of a discussion whether you want to be or not. Depending on the students' relationships with you, this may be an asset to a discussion. You should be aware, however, of several roles you can adopt.

(1) Leader--As leader you are in charge of the discussion, seeing that it gets started and keeps moving. You serve as a sort of switch board operator--lines of communication coming to you and directed elsewhere. Most of the time you are the center of attention and the success or failure of the discussion is on your shoulders.

(2) Facilitator--While you are still a part of the discussion, you play the role of a consultant to the process, you interject yourself only when the discussion needs help, gets bogged down or strays too far away from the main point. You are more neutral in this role, and because of this, some students may have a hard time accepting you in this role.

(3) Information Source--You are a "content consultant" in this position, a kind of information authority that offers facts and data when called upon. It is difficult to separate this role from that of leader, but as leader you take on the function of being responsible for both process and content.

You should also consider having the discussion led by students in the class. You may find discussion freer and more open and it will be good experience for the student.

Resources:

Pfeiffer, J. William and Jones, John E., A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Volumes I, II, and III. University Association Press, Box 615, Iowa City, Iowa.

A number of materials are available from the National Training Laboratories, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C.

THE FISH BOWL

General Description:

Watching people engage in discussion can stimulate awareness of different behavior of people in groups, as well as increasing observation skills. This exercise provides a means for observing cultural differences and the sources of these differences. It is best done with people of different cultures but this is not essential.

This technique can be used in conjunction with others in this manual or can stand alone. It might be helpful in introducing students to some of the elements of small group discussion.

Group Size:

Can be used with any size group but each "Fish Bowl" should not number more than 6-8 participants and an equal number of observers.

Time Required:

Varies with the way it is being used.

Materials Utilized:

No special materials.

Physical Setting:

Must be in a location where there is moveable furniture. Room should be set up so there is an inner circle and an outer circle of chairs, although the inner circle can sit on the floor if desired.

Process:

1. Divide the class into groups of six to eight. The even numbered groups are given a problem to discuss and resolve within a limited period of time. The discussion topic should be controversial enough to engage all participants. It might be a critical incident or case study.

2. The odd-numbered group sits outside the discussion group and observes the inner group. You can assign each member someone in the inner group to observe and report on later.

3. After the discussion has run 20 minutes or so, the outsiders are

asked for their observations.

4. The inner group then comments on their behavior and the discussion in general.

5. The teacher would then summarize any cultural difference or similarities observed during the session.

6. The arrangement can then be switched around and the outer circle becomes the "Fish Bowl".

7. You may also provide a check list for the outer circle to use in their observations and the discussion afterward.

USE OF OUTSIDE RESOURCES

General Description:

Most teachers are familiar with the use of the library as a resource for studying about other cultures. There is another library, however, that is used less frequently--the human library. There are literally hundreds of people who have a wide range of cultural experiences that you can use in a classroom.

Usually, outside resources are brought into a class to give a talk, but there are many different ways they can be used--in role plays and situational exercises; as resource people for case studies and critical incidents; as part of the conceptualization process for field experiences; in small group discussions. The possibilities are limitless and require only some imaginative thinking on the part of the teacher.

Group Size:

This depends on the activity. Could be from a small group to a full class.

Time Required:

Depends on activity.

Materials Utilized:

Since the people are the materials to be used, here are some suggestions of various kinds of people who have had cultural experiences which you might use in the classroom:

1. Foreign Students--you may already know of some, or you can always contact a local college or university's foreign student advisor.
2. Businessmen
3. Returned Peace Corps Volunteers
4. Tourists
5. Missionaries
6. State Department/AID/International Organization Personnel
7. Military
8. Students who have studied overseas.

Physical Setting:

Depends on activity.

Process:

This again depends on the activity, but there are some general considerations to keep in mind when using outside resources.

1. Preparation of the resources and the class is important so that there are no misunderstandings or unrealistic expectations. Too often, visitors have come to "participate" and felt compelled to give a lecture. In fact, there is often the feeling that if the resource doesn't "perform", he or she hasn't contributed.

2. As much as possible, try to fit the resources into what the class is doing rather than vice-versa. This is not always possible, but the effort should be made.

3. Give students a chance to talk about what the resource did (if it is that type of situation) and his point of view after he has left. For instance there may be some real differences between the AID and Peace Corps Volunteer's view of the country or area, and this should become part of the discussion.

4. Foreign students and teachers are very important resources and can add a "real life" dimension to the class. It does take time though to contact them, to work with them on the lesson and to make arrangements. As mentioned before, however, foreign student advisors at colleges and universities are usually willing to help.

Further Reference and Resources:

Grant, Stephan, The Use of Foreign Students in the Classroom, (mimeo), available from the Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Ma. 01002.

Information can be obtained by writing Ogontz Plan for Mutual International Education, c/o The International House of Philadelphia, 140 N. Fifteenth St., Philadelphia, Pa. 19102

FIELD EXPERIENCES

General Description:

Field experiences are short-term encounters with a real "cross-cultural situation". The student is often on his own and acts as a participant-observer in the particular area or situation he or she enters. They are designed to give brief contact with a cultural setting significantly different from that of the student.

Field experiences are an extremely valuable technique for cultural learning, but few, if any, schools utilized this method. Field trips, which are usually organized group activities done as a class, are different from field experiences. The former are usually structured and directed from the top down. This is not the case with field experiences. They are individual activities depending in a large part on the abilities and initiative of the student, and provide the opportunity for students to test their concepts, theories, beliefs and feelings.

Field experiences can be valuable learning tools for understanding our own as well as other cultures. There are sub-cultures within the United States and within our own cities and towns if we look closely enough. These can be used effectively for field experiences with the proper kind of preparation and follow-up work.

Various types of field experiences are possible since the concept is flexible enough to permit almost any variation. The one chosen would depend upon the learning objective and resources available.

Group Size:

Depending on the number of sites and the time to set them up, any number can participate in field experiences. Care should be taken, however, not to saturate a community.

Time Required:

Varies. From one afternoon to a weekend to several weeks, depending on how the experience is set up.

Materials Utilized:

1. Cross-cultural situation
2. Instruction Sheet
3. Diaries

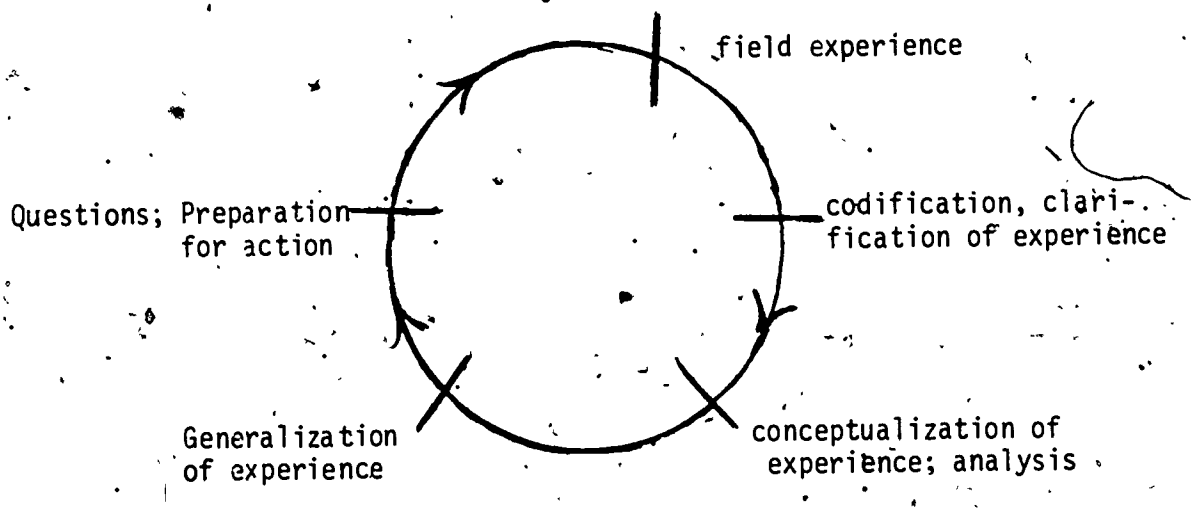
Physical Setting:

Depends on the experience.

Process:

It is important to remember that field experiences should not be isolated from other kinds of learning which go on in the classroom. In fact, the classroom parts comprise a significant part of the learning that takes place.

The process of experiential learning, which is what field experiences consist of--(a) selecting objectives, (b) organizing and preparing for the experience, (c) identifying resources, (d) the field experience itself, and then analysis, conceptualization and generalization of the learning experience--is illustrated in the following model:



Generally, this can be summarized by three steps: (1) preparation; (2) the experience; and (3) conceptualization.

1. Preparation: There are any number of ways this can be done, from library research to class discussion to group projects. The major considerations should be what is the best way for students to get ready for the experience. What will they learn the most from? And what is most relevant to the general outlines of the course or subject matter? Remember that in field experiences the process of learning is as important as what is learned.

You should spend some time before the experience talking over what the students are going to do and what might happen. You might consider using some situational exercises of typical situations that might occur in a field experience as one way of preparing them.

Diaries are a good way to keep a record of what happens and perhaps students should have some practice writing diaries before they go out. You may also have to deal with some fears and anxiety on the students' part over going out into the "unknown".

2. The Experience: There are many types of experiences and the following is a brief listing of some suggested ones:

--spending a day and a night, if possible, in a monastery or convent

--spending a day in a local nursing home talking with the residents

--working a day or two with migrant laborers on local farms

--talking to at least two real estate agents, landlords and tenants about having foreigners living in their apartments

--spending an afternoon and evening (preferably Friday or Saturday) with a policeman and talk to him about his job

--attend several meetings of the Kiwanis, Lions, Rotarians, VFW, or American Legion and strike up conversations with the members

--spending a day in an unemployment or welfare office, talking to those in the waiting room and with the office personnel

--staying with a family culturally different from the student's own for a day and a night

--spending a day with members of the Salvation Army, going to their meetings and, if possible, joining them as they solicit funds on the street

--spending a day in the County Court House sitting in the District Court while it is in session

--spending a night in the emergency ward of a local hospital

--spending a day and an evening in the waiting room of the maternity ward of a local hospital.

3. Conceptualization: This is an extremely important part of the process, but one which often is not done, or not done well. There is no set way to conduct the conceptualization portion; it is as varied as the experiences themselves. There are, though, some general comments. (See "Notes from Feedback Session on The Field Experience".)

Students should have the chance to talk about what they have done--whether it be in a large group, small group discussions, or in individual conferences. Most will have had an emotional experience and will want to

to talk about it in some way.

In addition to talking, there should be an expectation that the students will also try to summarize the experience in some form of expression: writing, a collage, photographs, film. This is one reason why keeping a diary is important.

Some general questions which you might want students to focus on are:

a. What did you find out?

b. What did you see?

c. How did you feel?

d. How do you think others felt about you?

e. What did you learn about yourself from the experience?

Resources:

Batten, T.R. Training for Community Development, London: Oxford University Press, 1962.

Wright, Albert R. and Mary Anne Hammond, Guidelines for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training. Estes Park, Colorado: Center for Research and Educational; or Washington, D.C.: Peace Corps, Office of Training Support, 1970; or write, Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Mass.

Wedge, Bryant. "Training for Leadership in Cross-Cultural Dialogue: The DA-TA Model of Learning and the SAXITE System of Dialogue", Princeton, N.J.: Institute for the Study of National Behavior, 240 Nassaw St., 1968.

Conner, Desmond. Understanding Your Community, Ottawa, Canada: Development Press, 1964.

FIELD EXPERIENCE INSTRUCTION SHEET

This weekend you will be visiting _____. Your task is to learn as much as possible about the community to form a picture of it you can understand and can comunicate to someone else. Obviously, in the brief time you are there, you won't find out everything there is to know, but try to learn as much as possible.

You will be arranging your own overnight accomodations once you are in the community. We suggest you make the most out of the learning experience by staying with a family rather than in a hotel or rooming house (except for those going to urban areas). You will be leaving Amherst early Saturday morning and returning late Sunday afternoon.

While you are in your community, you should try to use some approaches to learning about it. There are a number of different methods you can use:

(1) one broad approach would be to explore the community to form an understanding of what is important in it;

(2) another is to formulate specific questions about the community and the people in it, and try to find the answers to those questions;

(3) a third would be to look at some of the prominent institutions (church, school, etc.) as a focus for information about what is going on;

(4) your own way. You may think of a different approach from any of the above. If so, use it.

In utilising any of these methods or approaches, do that which you feel most comfortable with and which you think will work best.

Whichever way you go about finding out about the community, we would like you to keep a written account of the weekend--a diary or journal. This is to help you remember what you found out when we begin our discussions next week, and secondly, we think it will help you to better understand the experiences you have. The journal could be as open as possible and should include (a) information learned; (b) how you felt about the community and the people; and (c) how you think they felt about you.

You probably should do your writing after each conversation or at the end of the day rather than take notes while you are talking to people.

If you run into any serious difficulties or need to get in touch with someone before Sunday afternoon, call _____.

Good luck and have fun!

NOTES FROM FEEDBACK SESSION ON THE

FIELD EXPERIENCE

How did you view the experience before going to your community?

- not going after "primary information"
- had no specific goal
- it was a challenge
- wanted a lot of basic information on the town
- wanted the values of the people concerning their lives --didn't want just facts
- wanted to observe the types of people who lived in a small town
- wanted to test my stereotypes of these people

What topics or actions did the people respond to in a positive way?

- themselves (their personal lives were their favorite topic)
- history of the town (this was probably the easiest to get them to talk about)
- what was being done to restore the town
- youth problems (drugs, etc.)
- communists (they had little knowledge of fact but a lot of feelings about this topic)
- virtues of rural life
- gossip about neighbors
- taxes
- travel (the youth of the town were most interested in this topic)
- "nothing to do here" a favorite topic of youth
- farming
- snowmobiling
- what they've heard about the university

What topics or actions did the people respond to in a negative way?

- taking notes
- talking about myself ("not at all interested in me, beyond a few superficialities")
- negative reaction to the miniskirt

What seemed to determine status in the town?

- duration of residence (if you didn't have ancestors to talk about you were a foreigner)
- newcomers who wanted to change things were usually ignored, even if their position was normally one of high status
- amount of formal education didn't seem to relate much to status
- the commuters were generally regarded as willing to accept the benefits of rural life but none of the responsibilities

What aspects of the people's behavior did you notice as being different?

- dress not an indication of formal education or status
- some people seemed "cold" (very little eye contact with me. How about eye contact with friends?)
- colors not bright, skirts were long, dress in general not as important as in the "big city"
- seemed to be a generation gap between those who wore hats to church and those who didn't
- the older a person was, the harder it seemed to establish communication
- generally people not used to relating to outsiders
- seemed "slow" on unfamiliar topics but were "fast" on others (which ones?)

How do you feel about having gone through this experience?

- most felt very positive about the experience
- you learn as much about yourself as about the community
- generally found the people to be more "liberal" and well-informed and less petty than I expected.

NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

General Description:

**How do you show a Nepali that you are agreeing with him other than simply saying "I agree"? Many Nepalis nod or wag their heads which emphasizes their agreement, even though they might not say the words very emphatically.

**Some Latin Americans seem, to North Americans, to stand too close when they talk; the North American's propensity to keep his distance appears, to the Latin, to be reserved or even cold.

**A Western teacher in Ethiopia may feel his students are "sneaky" when they don't look him in the eyes. The Ethiopian is merely being polite.

There are various ways in which we speak and one of these is through non-verbal communication. It has been estimated that over 50% of our communication is done through non-verbal means and if this is true, it would be well to help students become just as aware of how we "speak" silently as how we do verbally.

There are several dimensions of non-berbal communication which can be explored:

a. looks, dress and grooming;

b. the use of space between people ("proxemics");

c. movements of the body, gestures, facial expressions ("kinesics");

d. touching behavior of people ("laptics");

e. use of the eyes--eye contact or avoidance ("occulesics");

f. the timing and rate of speech transmissions ("chronemics");

g. the meaning of time--period and duration.

Various exercises can be constructed around these themes which can illustrate some of the major elements of non-verbal communication. Many of these can be incorporated into role plays, situational exercises, and simulation games.

Group Size:

Size of the group depends upon the exercise to be done. Normally, an

average class could participate either as actors or observers.

Time Required:

Varies. Could be as little as 5-10 minutes to several hours depending on exercises. Generally shorter than longer.

Materials Used:

No special materials.

Physical Setting:

The average classroom is adequate. Moveable furniture would be helpful.

Process:

There is no one "process". Instead, here are some suggestions for introducing non-verbal communication.

1. Have students who are observers in a role play or situational exercise be responsible for only the non-verbal behavior and report on this during the discussion. See if the actors were aware of what they were doing.

2. Set up a situation with a foreign student (or someone knowledgeable) where there are different kinds of non-verbal communication occurring. See if the students can identify them.

3. Obtain the game, "Body Talk", and have the students play. Have others as observers see if they spot the behaviors without being part of the game.

4. Have students observe someone talking in a phone booth and see what they think they "hear".

Resources:

Canadian Film Board, A Chairy Tale

Fast, Julius, Body Language, New York:

Hall, Edward T., The Hidden Dimension, New York: Doubleday & Co., 1969

----------, The Silent Language, New York: Doubleday & Co., 1959

Body Talk, a commercial game. Published by Psychology Today.

INTRODUCTION TO "MATERIALS AND RESOURCES"

The purpose of this chapter is to direct teachers toward some of the latest materials and resources on the non-Western world. This is not intended to be an exhaustive bibliography, as that is available in the many resource guides listed in this chapter. It is, instead, intended to highlight some of the latest and most innovative materials available, and ones which are multi-disciplinary as well.

The chapter is divided into four parts. The first section describes various high interest level materials, both written and audio-visual, which direct the teacher and students towards particular approaches and goals (e.g. inquiry approach to understand traditional values and rapid changes in Africa. This section has the following categories: "General non-Western", "Africa", "Asia", "Latin America", and "The Middle East".

The second section describes resource guides which direct teachers to materials, techniques and approaches for teaching about the various non-Western areas, with an emphasis on the newer modes of teaching the social sciences in secondary school. It is divided into the catagories of "General", "Africa", "Asia", "Latin America" and "The Middle East".

Their third section is a listing of some agencies, organizations and universities where teachers and students may write for additional information on each of the non-Western areas.

The fourth section is a critical review of the major curriculum projects in the United States which have a major portion devoted to non-Western studies or areas. As it will be seen, these curriculum projects depart from the more traditional approaches to the teaching of social studies and emphasize, instead, new directions and dimensions in the teaching of the social studies and humanities in the schools.

PART I: Classroom Materials and Resources

General Non-Western Studies:

1. Tradition and Change in Four Societies, Richard B. Ford, Edwin Fenton, general editor, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York. 1968. 349 p. Teacher Guide.

This book can be used with a general one-semester or one year course in non-Western Studies or its individual section can be used with particular areas of the world, e.g. "Chinese Communist Foreign Policy". Instead of twenty or thirty chapters written in chronological order by one or two authors, the text has sixty-four readings arranged in four units: South Africa, China--Traditional and Communist, India and Brazil. Each reading contains an article or at least one piece of source material taken from a newspaper, magazine, book, government document or other publication. An introduction, which connects one reading to another, and study questions that alert the student to important points and issues, precede the article or source material. Maps accompany each unit as well as filmstrips, transparencies and class handouts. While there is little attempt made to study the chronological history of the non-Western world, each unit does provide a "sense" of historical understanding by analysis, the traditional society, the impact of Western ideas and institutions, and one major contemporary problem for each country, such as economic growth in India, race relations in South Africa and Brazil, and totalitarianism in China. Although the text with its supplementary materials is designed to be a complete teaching unit, other materials--reading and audio-visual--should be employed, otherwise even this interesting text might become tedious and boring for the student.

2. American Education Publications (AEP) has a series of pamphlets which challenge the student (7-12) in learning about the non-Western world. Rather than a straight chronological approach--these pamphlets use case studies to emphasize the cultrual, sociological, economic and political aspects of a particular society. In addition, a short historical description leads off each pamphlet to set the stage for a discussion oriented session which leads students to inquire into the nature of the people in a particular society. These pamphlets are intended for use with other materials and supplement both traditional and inquiry materials. The following is a list of those pamphlets which relate to the non-Western world:

Africa: Emerging Nations Below the Sahara, 1968
Colonial Kenya, 1969
Southeast Asia, 1969
China: Troubled Asian Giant, 1969
India and Pakistan: Subcontinent in Transition, 1968
Japan: Asia's Busy Island Giant, 1969
Latin America, 1969
The Middle East, 1969

Richard Tucker, managing editor, et al. American Education Publications, Middletown. $.35

3. Voices of Emerging Nations, Clinton E. Boutwell, Leswing Communications (San Francisco) for Stone Educational Publications (Chicago), 1971. Teacher's Guide.

This is part of the Voices of Life series, a new multi-media social science program for middle schools or the high school low-achiever. Each book is based upon the inquiry-conceptual approach to the study of man, his society, and his relationship to his environment.

In most cases the teacher will probably want to use the Learning Units in the sequence in which they appear in the text, but this sequence need not be followed and the teacher's guide is quite flexible in this regard. The guide provides all the elements necessary for a complete program including behavioral objectives, sample lesson plans and background information for the teacher. The readings are of high interest to the student and include case studies of people, situations and experiences, which encourage students to examine the values and various cultural aspects of the people.

4. People and Places: Case Studies in World Geography, J. G. Rushby, J. Bell, M. W. Dybeck. Rand McNally & Co., Chicago. 1970. Teachers Guide.

This series is divided into five books, each with a number of studies. Book I consists of a series of case studies from widely diverse areas of the world--including the Soviet Union, China, North Africa, sub-Sahara Africa, Latin America, Japan, India and the Middle East. It presents real people in actual places to describe man and his relationship to his environment. Book I has sixteen studies, where the population density is relatively low and where the inter-relationships between man and his environment can be discovered. In Books 2 and 3 (each with eight studies) the population density is moderate, while in Books 4 and 5 (also with eight studies each) the population density is high and the underlying factors complex. However, while population density is a theme, it does not necessarily determine the course, but acts instead as an aid to the teacher and student.

African Area:

1. Through African Eyes: Cultures in Change, 6 volumes, Leon E. Clark, Praeger, New York. 1969. $2.25 (ea) Teachers Guide.

These excellent texts are described elsewhere in the handbook. Teachers and students who have used these texts are lavish in their praise as reported by teachers in the schools. These texts, along with the teachers' guide, replete with lesson plans, suggestions for using supplementary and audio-visual materials, and a good bibliography, direct the students with their teachers toward some basic goals:

"--To begin where the student is; drawing on his own life experiences.
--To give the student a feel for what he is studying rather than a mere description; hence the use of primary source material.
--To focus on only the most important realities of Africa, making no attempt to 'cover' the area, which is both impossible and detrimental to sound learning.
--To teach the process of analysis as well as content, using the latter as a necessary ingredient of the former.
--To teach values that tend to (1) break down Western stereotypes of Africa, (2) eliminate ethno-centricism, and (3) help students examine societies objectively.
--To find data that is so interesting and rich that they will (1) attract the student's attention and (2) yield generalizations and concepts that will be useful in studying all cultures and societies.
--To encourage the use of the inductive (discovery, developmental) approach to classroom teaching.
--To employ the various disciplines of the social sciences in examining Africa and in giving students the tools of analysis."[3]

[3] Through African Eyes, Introduction to Teacher's Guide.

This approach does not rely on exposition which supplies ready-made or neat answers for students. Rather, it uses primary source materials which lead students, through stimulating discussions, to their own conclusions. Instead, then, of the inculcation of factual material, students learn concepts which become useful in understanding all societies, including their own.

2. World Studies Inquiry Series, "Africa" by Stephen Marvin. This is one of the books in the series by the World Studies Inquiry project, John V. Michaelis and Robin J. McKeown, co-directors, University of California/Berkeley. Publisher--Field Education Publications, Inc., San Francisco, 1969.

This series is the result of a project through the Office of Education (Dept. HEW) and each book ("Africa", "Asia", "Latin America") is designed to meet the needs of middle and secondary students who have reading difficulties or who are "turned-off" by traditional textbooks. The books are multi-disciplinary and include most of the social sciences as well as the humanities such as philosophy. There is an excellent teachers' guide which helps provide a more flexible role for the teacher and students in a discussion-oriented classroom.

While the series has a 5th grade reading level, it also has a very high interest level and lends itself quite well to a 10th grade educationally handicapped class as well as to individual "problem readers".

The readings draw their interest from human situations written in biographical or autobiographical style and include background information to place the story in social or political perspective.

3. Films and other audio-visual materials. The list of available films, filmstrips, records, etc., on Africa continues to grow year after year. However, few of these provide real insight into cultural values and life of the people. The overwhelming majority of these materials are straight narrative, "telling" the student about something, rather than encouraging students to ask questions. Of the narrative variety, two excellent films are: The River Nile, a National Geographic film (color, 55 minutes) which traces the course and history of that great river and Africa in Change: Continent of Africa, an Encyclopedia Brittanica film (color, 22 minutes) gives the students a good introduction and describes the various aspects of African life and some of the changes occuring in contemporary African societies. Of the non-narrative variety there are several excellent films: African Village Life Films is a series of eleven color films produced by Julien Bryan and the International Film Foundation, 475 Fifth Avenue, Room 916, New York, N.Y. 10017, ranging in length from 7-17 minutes and all without narration. The films come without explicative material

and provide students with a valuable opportunity to observe almost first-hand, the life of the peoples of Mali--particularly the Bozo and Dogon people--to discover their own questions about these people, and to answer some of them from their own observations. Included are Daily Life of the Bozo, Fishing on the Niger River, Building a Boat, Building a House, Herding Cattle.

An excellent film that has some narration is Africa is My Home, Atlantis Productions, 894 Sheffield Place, Thousand Oaks, Calif. 91360. Atlantis has a series of excellent films and Africa is My Home is one of the best. It portrays the life of a young Ibo girl of Nigeria caught between the conflict of traditional and modern life styles.

Another excellent film, produced by the BBC-TV, is called White Africa (40 minutes, black & white) and is an honest, engrossing documentary which actually enters the mind of a white South African. We hear his arguments in defense of the Apartheid policy: that he is historically justified in claiming ownership of the land; that blacks are inferior. This film will disturb many and elicit much discussion.

There are excellent filmstrips, records, slides and tapes which are listed elsewhere in this handbook and are intended to encourage students to raise questions and experience some aspect of African life. Two such filmstrip/record sets by EMC Corporation of New York in a number of ways meet those requirements:

> African Cliff Dwellers: The Dogon People of Mali
> This is a case study with a unique and informative look at an agricultural people of West Africa whose pattern of living is strongly affected by their religious beliefs. Both the photography and sound reproduction are excellent.
>
> Zanjafrica: A Study in Interaction and Interdependence
> This is an excellent set including six color sound filmstrips with records or cassettes. Along with a teacher's guide this set provides an in depth anthropological study of the peoples of Coastal East Africa and the country of Kenya.

4. Literature: Whether the course is integrated with the humanities or not, novels about Africa can be an exciting stimulus for a student. Novels by African writers such as Chinua Achbbe (Things Fall Apart, No Longer at Ease and Arrow of God) and Cyprian Ekwensi (People of the City) have been used with great success in the classroom. Novels by Alan Paton (Cry, the Beloved Country) and books by Colin Turnbull (The Lonely African) also are excellent for the classrooms as they provide insight into the lives, fears, hopes, and aspirations of the African peoples.

Asian Area

1. The Asian Studies Inquiry Program, John V. Michaelis and Robin J. McKeowen, co-ordinators and co-directors of the Asian Studies Curriculum Project, University of California/ Berkeley. Publisher--Field Educational Publications, Inc., San Francisco, 1969.

These interesting inquiry materials were developed as part of an Office of Education (Dept. HEW) project and represent the latest ideas in Asian Studies inquiry concepts. The series is multi-disciplinary and incorporates art, literature, religion, philosophy, history, sociology, geography, government, economics, and their inter-relationships in Asian life. The fifteen booklets are arranged in three clusters:

Cluster I: Asian Thought

"Confucianism and Taoism"
"Buddhism"
"Chinese Painting"
"Chinese Popular Fiction"
"Ghandi"

Cluster II: Asian Life

"East Meets West"
"Mao Tse'tung and the Chinese Revolution"
"Life in Communist China"
"Modernization in Japan"
"China and the United States"

Cluster III: Traditional Patterns of Asian Life

"Man and His Environment in Asia"
"Food and Survival in Asia"
"Man and Woman in Asia"
"Class and Caste in Village India"
"Cultural Patterns in Asian Life"

A comprehensive teacher's guide helps to direct the classroom activities and enables the teacher to play a more flexible role.

Each booklet starts with an introduction which focuses on a particular problem or topic; there follows a series of short readings which present information usually in the form of a case study, autobiographical sketch, newspaper or magazine article, or other first hand report; then there is a series of questions which help to direct classroom or group discussion of the topic.

While the materials were designed for use in a tenth grade World history course, it can be used with great success with ninth graders or above average middle-school age students, as well as seniors. Given the flexibility of the materials this could be used in a one-semester course on Asia, along with student projects and audio-visual materials, and would make an exciting option for juniors or seniors in high school.

2. World Studies Inquiry Series: "Asia" by Daniel Birch et al. Like "Africa", this high interest rather easy reading book can be used with great flexibility in the classroom at both the middle and secondary levels. It, too, is multidisciplinary and based upon inquiry concepts. Besides helping students to become more aware of their own situation through the study of another culture, students learn to use the tools of the social sciences in analyzing and applying data.

3. There are some excellent film and filmstrip/records/tapes that have recently been produced which provide insight into a culture instead of just giving a quick overview, and which can be used with much greater flexibility than the older more traditional variety of audio-visual materials. One such film is Japan, a Cultural Studies Film by Scott, Foresman Documentary Films. This is a new film and part of a series being produced which focuses on the people of a single country or cultural area. The film centers on their life style, incidents in their daily lives, happenings in which they are involved. It provides un-posed views and interviews giving students the opportunity to see and listen to ordinary people engaged in their daily pursuits.

Another film, while not new, still ranks as one of the best yet made about China. It is Inside Red China, a CBS-TV documentary made in 1966. It is in color and 51 minutes long and available through most educational film distributers. The film examines the daily lives of Chinese people showing life in a farm commune, the interior of a middle class home, a steel mill and some of the school activities. The film was made during the rise of the militant Red Guard by CBS in conjunction with foreign journalists and photographers and Han Su Yen the well-known Chinese authoress.

A series of beautiful color films on Asia produced by the BBC-TV and available through Odessey Productions include the areas of China, Ceylon, Southeast Asia, Malaysia and Japan. There is also available from the same company a film on Nehru (54 minutes, black & white), and a film entitled Born Chinese (57 minutes, b. & w.) which is about the daily life of the Lung family and a study of the Chinese character.

4. There are many good books--fiction and non-fiction that could be used successfully in an Asian Studies program, such as The Good

Earth and other books by Pearl Buck about China. The Resource Guide on Teaching about Asia lists many such books. One particular book stands out as an excellent choice for India--it is At Home in India by Cynthia Bowles, daughter of Chester Bowles, who was ambassador to India for many years. She was a teenager when she wrote the book, and students will easily be able to identify with this very sensitive autobiography.

Latin American Area:

Compared to the African and Asian areas, there is a lack of good materials for use in secondary schools on Latin America. The great majority of new materials direct themselves to the primary and middle grades--particularly grades 5-7. Some of these materials would be excellent for problem readers in high school. As for the more able readers, the materials already described on Latin America are excellent: the section on Brazil entitled "Race Relations in Brazil" from Tradition and Change in Four Societies is available in paperback with a teacher's guide; Latin America (AEP series), Voices of Emerging Nations, People and Places: Case Studies in World Geography.

In addition there are some excellent new materials:

1. Inter-American Studies: Latin America and Inter-American Studies: Mexico. These are new books published by Scott, Foresman & Co., and consist of Modular Learning Units which direct students toward understanding by the use of the tools of inquiry, or concepts, of seven social studies disciplines--history, geography, economics, sociology, anthropology, government and psychology. In a special section on activities at the end of each unit, students apply the tools of inquiry for an investigation of the many problems faced by Latin American countries. Included, also, is a glossary of terms, tables of facts, biographical information, etc.

2. Another book from Scott, Foresman is Latin America: Reform or Revolution, Carl H. Madden, Curriculum Resources, Inc., 1963. This is from the series "Area Studies in Economic Progress", which also includes the areas of China, Japan, India, Middle East and sub-Sahara Africa. The material in this book is planned around a problems approach. Current economic problems are first introduced to encourage student motivation and to sustain a good level of interest. This approach enables students to determine and discuss the relative significance of custom and tradition, amount and quality of basic productive resources, political, social and educational opportunities that have helped or hindered economic progress up to the present time. Sufficient analysis in-depth is given to enable students to speculate on the outcome if alternative programs and policies had been followed.

3. World Studies Inquiry Series--"Latin America" by Alfred Jamieson. Like "Africa" and "Asia" this is an easy reading, high interest level book designed for the problem reader or "turned-off" student. Like the others it, too, is multi-disciplinary and helps the students examine their own values and situations through looking at a collection of twenty-five studies on Latin America and discussing its implications on Latin America and themselves.

4. The Story of Latin America is another Field Social Studies Program book by Peter Greco and Phillip Bacon. Field Education Pub., Inc., San Francisco, 1970. While this book was disigned for sixth grade, its inquiry concepts, its emphasis on values and problem-solving makes it an excellent book to be used with older students, especially those with reading difficulties. It has an excellent teacher's guide which helps the teacher to provide an exciting flexible program.

5. Most of the films on Latin America are old, or out of date. Of the newer films, few add any enrichment. Of those few, the NBC-TV has produced five. Like the others already mentioned these have been produced with Odyssey Productions in New York, are beautifully photographed in color and 25 minutes long. They portray the customs, cultures and traditions of Brazil, Guatamala, Haiti, Peru.

Another film from the Cultural Studies Film series by Scott, Foresman Documentary Films is Mexico. Like the film, Japan, it centers on the people of Mexico, their life style, incidents in their daily lives and provides insight into the culture of Mexico.

Perhaps the best audio-visual material so far available on Latin America is Latin America Today. (20 filmstrips, 10 LP records and teacher's manual). They are also available individually by title. Multi-Media Productions, Social Studies School Service, 1000 Culver Blvd., Culver City, Calif., 90230. This is a series of sound filmstrips presenting various themes which have shaped Latin American history and its social, political, economic development and the relationship of Latin American nations to the rest of the world. Inquiry and discovery techniques are used to encourage the student to view Latin America not as an isolated region but as part of the mainstream of World History.

6. One book that students should read is The Children of Sanchez, Autobiography of a Mexican Family, by Oscar Lewis. Vintage Books, New York, 1961. This very sensitive portrayal of Mexican people has been acclaimed the world over and would make an excellent addition to a Latin American Studies program.

Middle Eastern Area:

1. Curriculum Materials on the Middle East, by Robert Pearson, Center for International Education, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Massachusetts 1972, 473 p. Teachers guide. This is the most interesting and thorough material yet encountered on the Middle East for use in the classroom. The approach is through "Middle Eastern Eyes" and does not attempt to "cover" this diverse area, but instead is designed to stimulate questions and discussions enabling students to inquire into the nature of cultures ranging from Christian Arabs in Lebannon to Moslem City dwellers in Cairo, to Jewish farmers in Israel. This is done through the use of articles, case studies, stories, biographical and autobiographical sketches and critical incidents. The material is divided into four Teaching Units: "The Family in the Middle East: Tradition and Change"; "The Process of Modernization in the Middle East"; "Colonialism, Nationalism and Revolution in the Middle East"; "Life on Kibbutz in Israel". The well-planned teachers guide provides continuity and valuable lesson plans for teaching a unit or course on the Middle East.

2. Laidlaw Foreign Relations Series, Laidlaw Brothers, River Forest, Illinois, 1967. The Laidlaw Series book on the Middle East is a good one and demonstrates the complexities of the are from the standpoint of American policy. After giving background information on the area in general, a case study is presented on Yemen -- specifically whether or not the U.S. should recognize a new revolutionary government in Yemen. The big power interests in the Middle East are clearly presented, and the complexity of the decision amply demonstrated.

3. The Middle East, American Educational Publications (AEP) Middletown, Connecticut. This short paperback includes good background material on the Middle East as well as case studies designed to bring out current cultural dilemmas in the Middle East. Case studies like "Should Girls Go To School? A Prince Wonders" bring out the tensions on traditional cultural values that industrialization has brought to the Middle East. Though a bit ethnocentric, this booklet gives a reasonable overview of modern life in the area.

4. Films, filmstrips, records, tapes. Two of the best films on the Middle East are full-length commercial films. The Battle of Algiers, available in both 16mm and 35mm, is a moving story of the Algerians resistance movement against the French. Ramparts of Clay, is a beautifully photographed (in color) story of a labor strike in a tiny village in Tunisia using the actual villagers as actors.

Some excellent films on Middle Eastern countries are available free of charge from Middle Eastern embassies. A beautiful color film of the annual pilgramage to Mecca via camel, ship and airplane is available from the Saudi Arabian embassy. For films such as this, write to the various embassies for their film lists.

A good, inexpensive film to rent on Morocco is Chaoui Faces His Future (Color; 20 min.) available from Universal Education and Visual Arts, 221 Park Ave. South, New York, N.Y. This is the story of a young Moroccon boy from a village going to school in a town for the first time. There is also a fine CBS documentary on Morocco entitled In the Name of Allah available through local TV stations. Many schools, of course, also have film catalogues listing films on particular countries or topics.

Middle Eastern music an add another dimension to various kinds of presentations on the Middle East. A variety of Middle Eastern records are available from Folkways Records and Service Corp., 165 W. 46th Street, New York, N.Y.

Audiotapes are also available and provide a change of pace on the study of the Middle East. Many tapes on the Middle East, including "Kemal Attaturk -- Westernizer of a Middle East Country" and "Among the Bedouin Arabs" are available from the National Tape Repository, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado.

5. There are some excellent books -- fiction and non-fiction -- that can be used as the core of a Middle Eastern studies program or as supplementary material. The best of these is a paperback Guests of the Sheik by Elizabeth Fermea, (Doubleday and Co., 1969). This is the story told with excellent cultural insight, of an American woman's acceptance into the life of village women in Iraq. It is [illegible]n and easy reading. Another good book is Life in a Turkish Village by Joe[illegible]. Pierce (Case Studies in Cultural Anthropology, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1964). This book describes a Turkish village from the standpoint of a Turkish boy, Mahmud. An excellent collection of short stories exemplifying modern cultural themes is Modern Arabic Short Stories, translated by Johnson-Davies (Oxford University Press, 1967). The translations are excellent and represent some of the best short stories written in modern Arabic. An excellent booklet on the Arab-Israeli crisis is Search for Peace in the Middle East, the results of a three year study by the American Friends Service Committee, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Resource Guides and Materials

A. General

An excellent source of available materials, information on how to use these materials, their costs, etc., is available in the Social Studies Curriculum Materials Data Book produced by the Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., Boulder, Colorado, 80302.

This Data Book is a compilation of the various social studies projects undertaken at various colleges and universities around the country and a description of the materials that were a result of those projects. Also included are materials from the Education Development Center, Inc., and the Educational Research Council of America. The Data Book includes project materials, textbooks and games and simulations for use in kindergarten through grade 12.

B. Africa

1. Africa, South of the Sahara: A Resource and Curriculum Guide, Barry K. Beyer and Percy Hicks. Thomas A. Crowell Co., Inc., 1969. Paper, $4.65

Dr. Beyer is assistant professor of history and director of Projects Africa at Carnegie-Mellon University, Pittsburg, Penn. 15213. This book includes a study of professional literature on sub-Saharan Africa, guidelines and strategies for setting-up courses, a survey of student attitudes and understandings about sub-Sahara Africa and its peoples, pre- and post-tests to measure what students already know, or think they do, and how attitudes have changed as a result of study. Also included is a fully annotated listing of over 500 written and audio-visual classroom materials, including a separate listing of those most highly recommended. There is also a listing of agencies, embassies and trade organizations representing sub-Saharan Africa.

2. Studying Africa in Elementary and Secondary Schools. Leonard Kenworthy, Teachers College, Columbia University, 2nd. ed. 1965, paper, $1.95.

A bibliography of available resources for the classroom study of Africa, as well as some suggestions for curriculum development. Not as comprehensive as Beyer's book.

3. Africa in the Curriculum, Beryle Banfield, Edward Blyden Press, 1968, paper, $1.95.

Most of the book is devoted to the kind of background information which

classroom teachers who intend to teach about Africa will find very useful: ancient empires and heroes; independence movements and their leaders; social institutions and traditions; and the traditional arts. The last chapter suggests specific learning activities.

4. The African Experience, Northwestern University Press, 1971.

This is a newly published three volume (the first two are available in paperback) set which includes Essays (Vol. I), a Syllabus (Vol. II) and an extensive Bibliography (Vol. III). This set serves two useful functions: one, it provides background for the teacher--and two, it helps the teacher to organize a course on Africa.

C. Asia

1. Preparation of Teaching Guides and Materials on Asian Countries For Use in Grades 1-12. United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Bureau of Research, 1969, 312p.

John V. Michaelis was responsible for the preparation of this extremely useful book which provides guidelines for including Asian Studies in the curriculum. It includes specific guidelines for preparing materials at both the elementary and secondary levels. There are examples of units on China, Japan and India and lists of objectives and ways of obtaining them. The emphasis is toward an inquiry--discovery--conceptual approach and heavy emphasis is upon the use of materials found in the Asian Studies Inquiry Program. Also included is an outline for a course on Asia and test data on selected units. This is the most comprehensive Asian studies curriculum guide so far encountered.

D. Latin America

1. Development of Guidelines and Resource Materials on Latin America for Use in Grades 1-12. Final Report. Clark C. Gill and William B. Conroy, Texas University, Austin, Texas. Office of Education, Dept. of HEW, Wash., D.C., Bureau of Research, 1969.

This represents the most thorough and newest guide so far developed on Latin America, especially at the secondary level. It is not as comprehensive as the Asian guide developed at Berkeley but it will be extremely useful to the teacher in developing a Latin American Studies Program.

The project consisted of the preparation, field testing and evaluation of instructional materials for use in grades 1-12. It is interdis-

ciplinary and involves not only the social sciences but the humanities such as art and music.

At the secondary level the guide is designed for grades 8-12. It assists the teacher in structuring a 4-5 week unit, as a unit in U.S. History, as a semester unit in Latin American Studies, Contemporary Inter-American Relations or Contemporary Latin America.

2. Teaching About Latin America in Secondary School: An Annotated Guide to Instructional Resources, Bulletin No. 2, 1967.

This is one of five bulletins to come out of the Texas University project on Latin America by Clark C. Gill and William B. Conroy. It represents a selected annotated bibliography of current teaching materials (textbooks, supplementary books, pamphlets, sources of films and filmstrips, and sources of free and inexpensive materials) on Latin America for secondary schools. It is the only such guide available and along with the just mentioned Final Report on the Latin American project, the teacher will have a valuable resource for designing a Latin American Studies program in high school.

Additional Information

A. General -- non-Western material as well as material on a specific area, i.e., Africa, Asia, Latin America, Middle East.

1. UNA/USA (United Nations Association of the United States) 833 United Nations Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10017
2. UNESCO, Place de Fontenoy, Paris 7, France
3. Center for International Education, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Ma. 01002
4. Diffusion Project, Social Studies Development Center, 1129 Atwater, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47401
5. World Studies Inquiry Series Project, Dept. of Education, Sproal 1223, Riverside, Calif. 94105

B. Specific Area -- Africa

1. Project Africa, Barry K. Beyer, director. Carnegie-Mellon University, Pittsburg, Penn. 15213.
2. The African-American Institute, 866 United Nations Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10017.
3. African Studies Center, University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA) Los Angeles, Calif. 90024

C. Asia

1. Asian Studies Curriculum Projects, School of Education, Tolman Hall, University of California, Berkeley, Calif. 94720
2. Asian Studies Project, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio 43210
3. The Asian Society, 122 E. 64th Street, New York, N.Y.
4. The Japan Society, 250 Park Avenue, New York, N.Y.
5. National Committee on U.S.-China Relations, 777 U.N. Plaza, New York, N.Y. 10017

D. Latin America

1. Latin America Project, Texas University, Austin, Texas.
2. Center for Inter-American Relations, 680 Park Ave. New York, N.Y.
3. Organization of American States, 19th St. and Constitution Avenue, Washington, D.C. 20006

4. The Embassy in Washington of a particular country in Latin America.

E. Middle East

1. American Friends of the Middle East, 1605 New Hampshire Ave. N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009

2. Institute for Mediterranean Affairs, 1078 Madison Ave., New York, N.Y. 10028

3. Middle East Institute, 1761 N. Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036

PART II -- CURRICULUM PROJECTS

The social studies curriculum projects which this section covers are generally the most important which have been produced to date and which have a strong international emphasis. This critical review will include an examination of the following:

Anthropology Curriculum Project (University of Georgia);

Anthropology Curriculum Study Project (American Anthropological Association);

Geography Curriculum Project (University of Georgia);

High School Geography Project (Association of American Geographers;

Greater Cleveland Social Science Program (Educational Research Council of America);

Minnesota Social Studies Curriculum Project (University of Minnesota);

Social Studies Curriculum Project (Educational Development Center);

Taba Curriculum Development Project (San Francisco State College).

The Fenton materials and the World Studies Inquiry Project have been discussed earlier in this section.

The materials have been divided into several categories; those concentrating on a discipline, such as geography or anthropology; those which concentrate most heavily on conceptual development; and one which stresses behavioral objectives. Aspects of the materials which will be examined are:

1. Degree of interdisciplinary emphasis
2. Discipline emphasis

3. Adequacy of treatment of values and attitudes

4. Quality of teaching methods/instructional activities suggested

Some general comments can be made about the characteristics of most of these projects in a comparison to the material previously available briefly summarized they are:

**the materials have used heavily the ideas and methods from the social sciences,

**most of the curricula are integrated and interdisciplinary,

**there is a concern for the structure of knowledge as well as the facts themselves,

**there is a major emphasis on discovery and inquiry methodology, including problem solving, the scientific method and inductive and decuctive thinking,

**most of the curricula show a concern for values questions, both in the analysis of the student's own values and increasing his awareness of his own and other values in general,

**there is a greater amount of realism and social conflict than in previous materials,

**the patterns of thinking which the materials emphasize are more creative, subjective and divergent than those in the past,

**cross-cultural studies and an emphasis on the non-Western world are more in evidence than in previous efforts,

**in-depth examination of an event or question is more common than a general survey, especially the use of case examples and primary rather than secondary sources of information,

**there is a great variety of types of materials, including booklets, simulations and games, audio-visuals (films, records, film-strips, transparencies) and workbooks,

**many of the projects provide all of the materials and resources needed for the course in the package itself,

**a good many of the projects do not stop at the materials themselves but give equal attention to teacher preparation and guidance,

**the materials have been field tested in a variety of situations and the projects have often solicited the comments and criticisms of teachers and educators.

In the disciplines there are four major projects; two in anthropology and two in geography. The anthropology curricula as developed by groups at the University of Georgia and from the American Anthropological Association are basically similar in content and in purpose. They are designed to present in various formats the basics of anthropology and to expose students to the ideas, skills and issues associated with the field. The Anthropology Curriculum Study Project (ACSP) has developed materials which can be used in world history and world cultures courses at the high school level. Called Patterns in Human History, this one-semester program includes study of patterns in:

(1) how human societies change and why there is resistance to change,

(2) man's adaptation to his social and physical environment,

(3) how societies hold together against internal conflict,

(4) the distribution of power and wealth in different cultures.

The project uses a variety of teaching materials to complement the examination of the different perspectives including teacher guides, student reading books, records, film strips, transparencies, "artifacts" charts, "evidence cards" and photographic prints. The course encourages the comparative use of data and by the study of a variety of societies exposes the students to differing values and ways of life.

The material is distinctly anthropology-oriented and makes little effort to include research and/or questions from other disciplines. Societies used as case examples are the Bushmen of the Kalahari, the Mbuti Pygmy of the Congo, the people of Jarmo in Southwest Asia, Iran, Vietnam and Peru. The materials do recognize value and attitude questions, and teachers are encouraged to deal with issues which might be raised, but no specific attention is given to them..

The University of Georgia materials are much more extensive. The curriculum includes two kinds of materials: a sequentially organized anthropology curriculum for grades one to seven and various other materials for specific instructional purposes (a unit on race, caste and prejudice: an archeological methods course on American Indians, political anthropology, etc.) primarily for the upper grades. The elementary materials are organized around some of the basic ideas of anthropology--evolution, race, culture, technology, kinship, life cycle--and the program has been developed so that grades 1-3 and 4-6 can study the same ideas in the same order but at a different level. The units produced so far are:

The Concept of Culture (K, 1 and 4);

The Development of Man and His Culture (2 and 5);

Cultural Change (3 and 6);

Life Cycle (7);

Race Caste and Prejudice (Junior High).

As with the ASCP, the developers have drawn upon the latest knowledge and thinking in anthropology. Since one of the goals was to produce

materials for teachers who have little or no experience in teaching anthropology, there are extensive teacher guides provided with the course but little attention is given to the interdisciplinary teaching possibilities. The values and attitudes questions are not dealt with explicitly in some of the materials but the implication in the Cultural Change, Race Caste and Prejudice and Life Cycle units is that these should be a major focus. Guides, textbooks, and pre- and post-tests comprise the instructional materials.

Two geography curricula have also been developed. The University of Georgia has fashioned a set of elementary curriculum materials which parallels their anthropology efforts; and the High School Geography Project, under the suspices of the American Association of Geographers, has developed a two-semester course instended for the tenth grade. The Georgia materials focus on some of the fundamentals of geography and include units entitled:

Earth; Man's Home (K);
Place and Environment (1);
Resources and Production (2);
Spatial Arrangement and Region (3);
Rural Settlements (4);
Urban Settlements (5); and
Population (6).

Through a variety of visual materials and workbooks, students are introduced to geographical concepts and since several global settings and cultures are used, they are required to do some comparative and contrastive

thinking. The materials are distinctly discipline oriented and there are few attempts to relate some of the lessons to other subject areas which might be taught. There is almost no treatment of values and attitudes and these issues are left in the hands of the teacher to decide what he or she wants to do. The materials make little use of the new view of the world that space exploration has afforded and in this respect they are relatively traditional.

The High School Geography Project is designed as a two-semester course and has produced extensive and well-designed materials. The six units which comprise the course--Geography of Cities; Manufacturing and Agriculture; Cultural Geography; Political Geography; Habitat and Resources; and Japan--are interdisciplinary and in large part integrated. They draw from geography, history, economics, political science and anthropology. The materials have a strong cultural and international flavor. For example, sections on cultural geography which includes material on different ideas of cattle (the Nuer of Sudan, bullfights in Spain, cattle in India); sports; the expansion of Islam; Canada; and cultural change in the cities are excellent examples of how geography and culture are tied together presenting in a simple and concise form some valuable resource material for comparative and contrastive study. The unit on habitat and resources examines the relationship between these two elements and uses rivers and water management as the subject matter. The concluding unit on Japan is an effort to tie together much of the preceding five units and can be used in conjunction with the other units in the series.

While all of the curricula pay some attention to concept development,

there are three major projects with "international" elements that rely heavily on the conceptual scheme approach. These are the Greater Cleveland Social Science Program, the Minnesota Social Studies Curriculum Project and the Social Studies Curriculum Program. The Greater Cleveland Project is a K-12 curriculum based on the sequential development of social science concepts and generalizations. A major emphasis in the curriculum is on the process of transmission of culture with stress placed on important concepts selected from all social science disciplines. The international focus is evidenced in these units:

> Learning About the World and Children in Other Lands (K);
> Communities At Home and Abroad (2);
> India: A Society in Transition (4);
> Middle East (5);
> Latin America (6);
> Africa (7);
> North America and the Carribbean (8); and such topics as
> The Challenge of Our Time: The Recent and Contemporary World; and
> Comparative Politics and Economics.

The goal of the program is the development of "healthy emotional attitudes and intelligent interaction in social relations", and in large part, the curriculum succeeds; but this is not entirely consistent with the heavy concentration on subject matter. Values and attitudes receive less attention than content matter. In general, however, the Cleveland materials are a significant step toward disciplinary and integrated materials with their distinct cross-cultural focus.

The Minnesota Project, under the direction of Edith West, has produced a large number of materials under the general title, The Family of Man. The curriculum was developed by an interdisciplinary team of social scientists, social studies specialists and classroom teachers, and the materials reflect this integration of knowledge and skills. This project emphasizes the behavioral sciences and the non-Western world more than most and includes a great deal of comparative and contrastive study. The curriculum uses three basic principles in its design; moving from the simple to the complex, cross-cultural comparison, and the part-whole principle or organizing ocntent. Beginning with The Earth As the Home of Man, (K), through Communities Around the World (3), and Man and Culture (7), and areas studies of the U.S.S.R., China, India and Western Europe in the eleventh grade, the curriculum focuses on the concept of culture. In the inquiry which takes place, students are required to develop skills, attitudes and major social science concepts which apply to this main thread. Behavioral goals, cognitive and affective, are developed for each unit. Value and attitude issues are developed most completely in the twelfth grade unit on Value Conflicts and Policy Decisions, which deals with such issues as civil liberties, national security, economic growth, aiding underdeveloped countries, keeping peace and racial conflict in the United States. Given the units which precede this one, the value and attitude questions have a substantial cross-cultural base for examination.

The Minnesota materials are an ambitious effort and often succeed in terms of the world view they are trying to foster. While inquiry is the suggested method, there is a recognition that this may not be appropriate

for certain topics and expository teaching may be more appropriate. This flexibility is typical of the curriculum.

Man: A Course of Study, developed by the Social Studies Curriculum Project at the Educational Development Center, places great emphasis on the fact that man is only one species of life, and thus man-animal comparisons are a significant element in the curriculum. Where other projects follow the family, neighborhood, community, state, nation, world sequence, MACOS takes the child out of his classroom and neighborhood to aid his understanding of himself as a human being. The curriculum concentrates on man's experience and his common or unifying characteristics. The three major questions of the curriculum are:

"What is human about humans?"

"How did they get that way?"

"How can they be made more so?".

Much of the material is heavily anthropological and animal behavior and man-animal relationships are an integral part of the curriculum.

The materials are designed for the intermediate school age and are built around concepts such as life cycle, adaptation, innate and learned behavior, structure and function, territoriality, and social organization. The basis of the course is a series of booklets beginning with the life cycle of salmon and moving "upwards" to the Notsilik Eskimos, which were chosen because they were "intrinsically interesting" and are different enough from most of the students which makes it easier to distinguish what is common about man in general and what is specific to culture. The

materials are designed to be used with a whole series of excellent films which form the backbone of the course. Games and some individual projects are also included.

Cognitive and affective concerns are an essential part of the curriculum. There is a companion set of teacher guides which leave the teacher a good amount of flexibility for creative teaching unlike many of the other curricula. Another significant feature are the teacher workshops which are required for those who are planning to use the curriculum. The designers believe there is a very real connection between the content of the curriculum and the process of teaching and this is the major emphasis of the workshops.

Finally, the Taba Curriculum Development Project is a major effort to state the principle objectives of a course in observable behaviors. The curriculum, which will eventually be for grades 1-8, is designed to develop thinking skills, help acquire selected knowledge to help in acquiring selected values and attitudes, and to develop the academic and social skills for all of the aforementioned. The individual book materials which are entitled People in Families, People in Neighborhoods, People in Communities and People in States take a comparative and contrastive approach to a variety of cultures. For instance, the Families volume takes four American families and one family each from Kenya, France, Canada and Mexico and through a series of pictures illustrates the primary activities of the families. The Communities book compares the Bedouin, the Yoruba, the Thai and the Norwegian. There is no attempt to cover all of the factual material as many social science curricula do. The books are resource books rather than

textbooks and provide data which can be used for whatever learning activities the teacher and students wish to do.

The teacher's guides are an extremely important part of the curricula. Each contains a list of the overall objectives and there is a list of more complex objectives for each succeeding year. Both cognitive skills and affective learning are given equal weight in the curriculum. The materials, in spite of their completeness of objectives, leave the teacher much flexibility in how the course is put together and what kinds of materials could be used. Additional preparation for teachers who would use this course would be necessary.